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THE WESTERN JOURNAL, AND Civilian,

DEVOTED TO

Agriculture, Manufactures, Mechanic Arts, Internal Improvement, Commerce,

PUBLIC POLICY,

AND

POLITE LITERATURE.

Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts are the basis of Civilization.

M. TARVER & H. COBB,

EDITORS & PROPRIETORS.

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ARTICLE I.

Geological Survey of Missouri.

THE glory of a State is derived from the nature of its lands and the spirit of its men. If a country abounds with sublime and beautiful scenes: for this cause alone, it becomes famous among poets and travellers for pleasure, like Switzerland. If it abounds with gold, it inflames the imagination, and attracts crowds of speculators, like California. If it abounds with lovers of art, it is then invested with a refined halo, like Italy. If it abounds with useful metals, and with men who know how to turn those metals into use, it not only gains a brilliant glory of substantial civilization, but wins the honors of art and of gold from other lands, like England.

The State of Missouri possesses the materials of internal wealth, which are the great bases on which the splendor of the prosperity of England is established. Mountains of mineral, and vallies of fertility, adorn the central State of the Union. Beauty and sublimity of scene, soils and mines of wealth, every inanimate material of art are hers. But has she the spirit in her men to appreciate and display the power and the glory she is capable of attaining? Time will tell.

We have heretofore invoked this spirit of her people, and a moderate manifestation of its presence was exhibited.

On the 24th of February, 1853, the Legislature of Missouri made "An act to provide for a geological and mineralogical survey of the State," directing the Governor to appoint a suitable and competent person, State Geologist, and authorizing the Geologist, by and with the consent of the Governor, to appoint four skillful assistants, and any necessary subordinates, and requiring them to discover and examine all beds or deposits of ore, coal, marls,

and such other mineral substances and mineral waters as may be useful or valuable, and to perform such other duties pertaining to the survey, as to make it full and complete. Elaborate examinations, assays and analyses, with reports thereon; an annual report of progress, with maps, drawings and specimens; and a final memoir of the whole survey are required to be made. Three complete cabinet collections of specimens of the geology and mineralogy of the State are provided for, one to be given to the State University, one kept in the State Capitol, and one presented to the City of St. Louis, for the purpose of public inspection. Twenty thousand dollars are appropriated for the purpose of carrying the provisions of the act into effect: amount of salaries, cost of chemical apparatus and other out-fit included. A wise provision is added, which, though a temporary annoyance to private speculators, will result in the most permanent and entire satisfaction to the masses of the people throughout the whole State. This provision obligates the chief Geologist and his principal assistants under oath "to abstain from all pecuniary speculations for themselves or others in the objects of their survey during its progress."

This act of the Legislature shows that the spirit of the people is beginning to stir itself, in behalf of civil progress, and that the representatives of the people are being actuated with motives higher and nobler than those of mere petty, political intrigues—that they are moved with liberal feelings, and guided by enlightened views of a statesman-like public policy.

One year and a month has passed since the passage of the law. In the meantime Prof. G. C. Swallow, of the State University, was appointed State Geologist; and he with his four principal assistants and necessary subordinates, have been engaged fulfilling the provisions of the law. Surveys have been made in the Northwestern, the Southeastern and Southwestern portions, and Prof. Swallow is now out making surveys in the Northeastern quarter of the State. It is fair to presume that large quantities and great varieties of ores, soils, and other valuable substances have been collected from the four quarters of the State; and that the laboratory is busy working out the secrets of the nature of the lands. In regard to the facts of the number, variety and source of specimens, and the result of their analyses: an apparently religious silence is observed by the corps, under a strict construction of their oath; and thus while they are maintaining a barrier against priv-

ate speculation, and preserving their discoveries of the untold wealth of the State for the public good, the detail of facts and results gained by the corps, over which such a lively civil as well pecuniary interest is suspended, cannot be made known until disclosed to the Legislature.

While this survey is progressing under this law, it is well to consider what additional arrangements should be made to prosecute this work with a force, in a style and to an extent, far beyond that now provided for. Although the Legislature of Missouri, after deliberating on the reports of the State Geologist, to be laid before them next winter, may determine to appropriate additional State funds for a more minute survey than could possibly be made under the present law; and although such a policy might display a liberal and patriotic spirit, yet this is not the only, neither is it the best policy to be pursued.

The State of Missouri has claims on the government of the United States, large claims, founded on principles of equity and good conscience, justified by precedents set by Congress, and capable of being firmly substantiated by sound reasons. These claims are in behalf of the geological survey of Missouri.

Immense sums of money have been appropriated by the General Government in behalf of the Survey of the Coast, of the Lakes, and of the Atlantic and Pacific ocean; and a respectable fund was lavished on the Dead Sea, while the center of the Union was suffering for aid to begin its own survey. Should not the center of the country receive from Congress equal regard with any one portion of its extremity? — equal regard with any portion of Asia? Is it not equitable to be just before being generous? Is it not according to good conscience to take as much care of the heart as of the outside of the Union?

On the question of a geological survey of a State, Congress has set precedents. The report of the Geological Survey of Wisconsin, Iowa and Minnesota, by DAVID DALE OWEN, U. S. Geologist, dated 20th October, 1851, published in an elegant and costly style, and with its elaborate maps, drawings and hundreds of illustrations, is one of the results of a liberal appropriation made by Congress for this object. This expensive printed report, issuing from the press "BY AUTHORITY OF CONGRESS," has been spread throughout the United States, and has found its way in various foreign lands, and thereby another and more glorious result has occurred to Wiscon-

sin, Iowa and Minnesota, flowing from this munificent act of the General Government. Their population, labor, capital and prosperity have increased with a rapidity which excites the wonder and astonishment and even confounds the power of calculation of causes of those who do not consider the effect of this authorative record evidence of the beautiful scenes and vast resources of the land where the rivers of North America arise.

We are far from finding fault with the policy pursued by the General Government, in making appropriations from an overflowing treasury to discover and display the scenes and resources of the country, for we consider it one of the surest and most effective means of stimulating the industry, enterprise and independence of the people—of printing the beautiful and useful impressions of their country on their minds—of filling their hearts with a glow of love, of admiration and of reverence, for their benevolent Government.

We approve of the precedents, and advocate the continuance of this policy in behalf of every portion of the Union, and furthermore we declare, and hope to maintain our declaration by sound reasons, that the General Government should grant a quantity of land, equal to one township in each land district of the States containing public lands, to each of said States, for the purpose, first of making a minute, accurate and complete geological survey of the State, and second, for the perpetual endowment of a Farming and Mining College, in each one of such States.

The claims of the State of Missouri to such a grant are strong; and we will here present some of the reasons on which they are founded.

On an examination of the report of the Commissioner of the General Land Office, dated 30th November, 1853, it is shown that the "Total unsold and unappropriated of offered and unoffered lands on the 30th of June, 1853, belonging to the United States, within the State of Missouri, was 22,722,-801.41 acres." At the rate of $1.25 per acre, this quantity of land amounts to $28,403,501.

An equivalent to one township in each land district in Missouri, there being eight districts in the State, amounts to only 184,320 acres, and at the rate of $1.25 per acre, this quantity of land amounts to only $230,400, which leaves to the United States 22,-538,481 acres, amounting in value, at the minimum Government price, to $28,173,100, making scarcely a perceptible deduction

from the quantity and value of Government lands in Missouri. Scarcely a perceptible deduction from the value, did we say! The value of the remainder will be increased far beyond that of the quantity granted. The Government will make money by the operation. The State of Missouri, as above shown, has already appropriated $20,000 for the purpose, and is prosecuting the work of this survey, which will enhance the value of the lands of the United States more than those of the people; as the lands which are settled are better known than those which are wild.

The settlement of the country by the pioneers, enhanced the value of Government lands by their improvements. For this service the people of Missouri should receive satisfaction. The grant claimed is less than the value of this civil service. The military is required to be subordinate to the civil authority. Then, why should civil service in subduing the wilderness, go unrewarded, while the military is not only paid, but also receives land warrants as a bounty? Why should the Public Domain be given away like a vast inheritance, often is to spendthrift children, when a portion of it may be wisely appropriated for their perpetual prosperity? Why should the cause of intellectual education receive endowments from the Government, and the cause of material education for useful, farming and mining purposes be suffered to languish in want and ignorance? The farmers and the miners want colleges for the study of their profession in life, as well as the lawyers and doctors. "Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts are the basis of civilization." This basis should be well founded in order to sustain the most perfect superstructure of Civil Government.

The Department of Manufactures so vital to the prosperity and independence of a country, would be quickly built up from the elements collected in the geological survey, and would be brightened by the prosperity of the farmers and miners.

The prosperity of each individual State adds luster to the general splendor of the Union. The prosperity of Missouri may relieve the United States from its present material dependence on England, especially for railroad iron which has now become an item of great national interest. The Geological Survey will hasten that glorious event. And although iron is a prominent and vast article in the wealth of Missouri, yet the coal, lead, cobalt, copper, nickle, manganese, emery, zinc, granite, porphyry, marble, alum earth, pipe and pottery clays, kaolin and glass sand, together

with evidences of tin, and sands of gold which are found along the St. Francois river, in Madison county—the evidences of tin being reported to us by that devoted and scientific investigator of geology, Dr. H. A. PROUT, and the sands of gold by the unimpeachable testimony of CHARLES GREGOIRE, Esq. — the other articles being well and generally known to be found in the State—all these articles of wealth in Missouri will necessarily add to the material glory of the whole country. And they will be speedily developed, displayed and applied to use by the instrumentality of the geological survey.

The corn, wheat, hemp and tobacco soils, will also be made to produce even more abundantly than now, by the light and various genial influences flowing from the geological survey.

And not only the farming and mining interests, but the manufacturing and mercantile also, as a necessary consequence, would feel and manifest the healthy, stimulating effect of the geological survey; yet with and above all these interests rises that of the railroad system of Missouri, with its 1200 miles of main, leading trunk lines, which, more powerfully and more immediately than any other interest in the State, will be pushed and secured by the consummation of this measure. Indeed the railroad companies of Missouri, as the routes of their roads run through varied fertile and mineral regions, the evidence of whose wealth rests too exclusively on *hearsay* testimony, would be richly repaid by obtaining a geological survey of their respective routes at their own cost. Then they would have the *record* evidence, enabling them, as is acknowledged by railroad Engineers, to build their roads cheaper, by discovering the best material; to increase the amount of their stock subscription, by raising its value; to sell their bonds at higher rates. by strengthening their security; and by directing a stream of population, labor and capital along their roads, to promote their prosperity with redoubled energy.

Let then an earnest enthusiasm be aroused in this cause throughout the whole State. The more enlightened the people become on this subject, the stronger will their feelings, in its favor, grow. Let petitions be sent from every district in the State to each of its Senators and Representatives in Congress. Let all parties unite as one man on this leading measure of public policy for the benefit of every portion of the State, now and forever—the Geological Survey for the present—the perpetual endowment of a farm-

ing and mining College for the future. Let each one of the railroad companies of the State send their memorials to Washington city, urging prompt action on the memorial of the Legislature, which was sent to Congress during the first half of the present century :* for the value of our railroad enterprises, as above shown, would be rapidly promoted by accurate disclosures of the unknown or merely rumored wealth along their routes. Let the mercantile and manufacturing interests whose prosperity is based on the products of the soils and the mines of the State, join with the railroad companies, and all political parties, to drive this measure with all their force; and may the people of Missouri never rest in the prosecution of these claims till this grant is gained, and this plan carried out. Then the mountains and the vallies of Missouri will become famous throughout foreign lands. Population, labor and capital will flow into this State, where the tide to California will return. Thousands of tons of railroad iron will soon be annually rolled out here; here the mechanic—the manufacturing—the useful arts will flourish, sustained and adorned by the gold and the Fine Arts drawn from other lands. Here, in this heart of the Union, the pulsations of commercial life, will diffuse health and energy—along the veins and nerves of locomotion and communication, on railroads and on telegraphs, by the Gulf and by the Lakes, by the Atlantic and by the Pacific oceans,—throughout the whole body of the business world.

NOTE.—On examination of the last annual report of the Commissioner of the General Land Office, we find that the government of the United States has granted land to the State of Illinois for Internal Improvements, amounting to 1,109,861.61 acres more than have been granted to Missouri for that purpose. Further; that the railroad grants to Illinois amount to 2,134,253 acres more than the railroad grants to Missouri, although the area of Illinois contains only 35,462,389 acres, while that of Missouri contains 41,623,680 acres; and finally, that the General Government retains only 4,115,969.97 acres in Illinois, while it holds 22,722,-801.41 acres in Missouri.—EDITOR.

* See *Western Journal*, vol. 2, May, 1849.

ARTICLE II.

Valley of the Ohio.

BY MANN BUTLER, ESQ.

Continued from page 426, vol. XI. No. 6.

ESCORT OF GUNPOWDER FROM FORT PITT TO KENTUCKY.—FIRST CONSIDERABLE INVASION OF KENTUCKY, UNDER THE INDIAN CHIEF BLACKFISH, IN 1776. ADVENTURES OF GEN. JAMES RAY, HIS SPEED, HIS LABORS FOR THE BESIEGED; SIEGE OF HARRODSTOWN, OF LOGAN'S STATION; HEROISM OF LOGAN; REINFORCEMENT BY COL. BOWMAN, CAPTURE OF DANIEL BOONE AND 27 MEN; SIEGES OF BOONESBOROUGH; RETREAT OF THE CANADIANS AND INDIANS; BRITISH PROCLAMATIONS TO THE PEOPLE OF KENTUCKY.

Clark and his associate having obtained these important benefits for his fellow-countrymen in the wilderness, were preparing to come again to the interesting colony; when they heard that the supply of gunpowder, obtained with so much difficulty from Virginia, still lay at Fort Pitt. Jones and Clark then determined to return to Kentucky by that place, to obtain an article so precious in the existing condition of the frontier.

At this extreme western point, there were many Indians lurking about, apparently for the purpose of making treaties; but who were in reality spies on the movements of our countrymen, whose intention to descend the Ohio they seemed to suspect; and would, in all probability, try to interrupt. Under these circumstances, our party resolved to prosecute their voyage without delay; and with no more than seven boatmen, with indefatigable exertions, pursued the whole way by Indians, they got safe to Limestone Creek, just above the present town of Maysville, in Kentucky. The party went up this creek with their boat, and having buried their precious cargo at considerable distances apart, they then turned their boat adrift, and directed their course to Harrodsburg. Here they expected to procure a sufficient escort for the gunpowder.

On their way through the woods, they came to a solitary cabin, one of Hingston's, on the west fork of Licking river. While resting here, some men, who were sent out surveying, happened to come to the same place, and informed our envoys, that the Indians had not recently done much mischief; that Col. John Todd was in the neighborhood with a small body of men, who might escort the gunpowder to its destination. Clark, however, with his usual

promptitude, after having waited for this reinforcement for some time in vain, set off for Harrodsburg, accompanied by two of his men, leaving the residue with Jones at Hingston's. Soon after Clark had left, Col. Todd arrived; and upon being informed of the precious deposit on the river bank, thinking his force sufficient to effect its removal, marched with ten men for that purpose. When they reached the country about the Blue Licks, they met, on the 25th of September, 1776, with an Indian party, who were following the trail of Clark and his companions. This hostile body attacked the whites with so much vigor, as to route them entirely, having killed Jones with some others, and taken some prisoners. Among the latter was Col. Campbell.*

Fortunately for Kentucky, the prisoners were true to their countrymen, and preserved the secret of the military stores inviolate. A party from Harrodsburg afterwards brought them in safety to their overjoyed friends.

On the 29th of December, 1776, a large body of Indians attacked McClellan's fort on Elkhorn Creek,† and killed McClellan and two others, which drove the residue of the inhabitants to Harrodstown. This necessarily produced great alarm; it was soon much increased by an attack of the Indians upon James Ray, his brother, and another man, who were clearing some land about 4 miles from Harrodstown, at the Shawnee Springs, the late residence of this venerable and distinguished pioneer; the last whom the author had the high gratification of knowing personally. The hostile party consisted of forty-seven warriors, under the command of *Blackfish*, a chief who will again meet our notice; attracted by the noise of the axes, they rushed upon the party of choppers, killed the younger Ray, and took the third man prisoner. The elder Ray escaped by his uncommon swiftness of foot. So remarkable was this young woodsman for his running, that Blackfish mentioned it to Boone, when he took the latter prisoner the next year at the Blue Licks. The chief remarked that some boy at one of the forts or stations had outrun all his warriors. Fortunate it was for the infant fort at Harrodstown, that Ray possessed such nimbleness of foot: for without his escape to give the alarm, the station might have been surprised, as the party had

* The co-partner of Conolly on 2,000 acres below Louisville, bordering on the canal.

† The site of Georgetown, Scott county, Kentucky, also called Royal Spring, from its copious supply of water.

been at the Shawnee Springs. In consequence of Ray's information, everything was done to strengthen the forts, and prepare for the expected storm. On the next morning, the Indians, with the precaution usual to them, not to prosecute an expedition immediately, after any circumstance has happened, calculated to put an enemy on his guard against it, appeared before the fort, on the 7th day of March, 1777.

The militia had been organized but two days before. The Indians began by setting fire to an out-cabin, on the east side of the fort; this, the garrison not believing to be the act of the enemy, rushed out to extinguish. The Indians now attempted to intercept their return; but our people retreated, until they got to a piece of woods, which then covered the hill, now [in 1833] occupied by the courthouse in Harrodsburg; here each man took to a tree, or tree-ed, as it was called in the language of the times. In this conflict, on which so much depended in the infancy, the very formative state of the colony, one Indian was killed, and four of the whites were wounded, one of whom died. Our people made good their retreat to the fort; the Indians soon after retired. The early time, at which this *first* siege of Harrodsburg was laid, and the paucity of settlements in the country, only make this, generally speaking, insignificant affair, worthy of being related. But the capture of Harrodsburg would have incalculably delayed the settlement of the country, if it had not led to further and still more fatal triumphs of the enemy.

During this year [1777], the Indians collected in great numbers round this devoted place; so much so, as to prevent any corn from being raised about the fort. During this period of danger and want, Ray, then but about 17 years of age, used to rise before day, and with an old horse, the only one left by the Indians, out of forty brought by his father-in-law, Major McGary, to the country, proceeded as cautiously as possible to Salt river, riding in the water, as well as in the bed of any stream in his way in order to conceal his route. On leaving the river, when sufficiently out of hearing, our young woodsman would kill enough to make a considerable load of meat; he would then take it to the suffering garrison by night-fall. This was accomplished, too, when older hunters, stimulated by these boyish exploits, attempting the same enterprise, were often killed by the Indians. These isolated facts derived from the lips of the gallant actor, with much more, that

may not be introduced, in these general views, are illustrative of the difficulties and privations of frontier life.

At this time [about 1777], Logan's garrison, of St. Asaphs, near the present town of Stanford, in Kentucky, that is the men capable of bearing arms, consisted of fifteen *men* only. The two other principal forts were each kept in alarm by the Indians; so that no assistance could be afforded by the one to the other. The distresses of the inhabitants, particularly of the women and children, may faintly be conceived; cooped up at this period of the year, in their confined stations, and surrounded by a merciless foe. "But aided by Logan, and encouraged by his example, the little handful under his command, not exceeding thirty-five, the men less than half this number, would not complain, much more despair." Of this apparently insignificant number "two were killed, and a third wounded."* "The loss of the enemy, if any, was not known. Harrodsburg and Boonesborough were about equidistant, and the only places from which any assistance could be expected, had they not been in equal peril themselves.

On the 25th of July, 1777, a party of forty-five men arrived from North Carolina, and although they went to Boonesborough, the intelligence of it, in some way seems to have reached the beleaguered people of Logan's station. In this attack, the Indians made their approaches with more than their usual secrecy, or the garrison were not on the alert.

"The annoyance of the Indians still continued, after these successive sieges, in which they seem to have exerted all their arts of barbarian warfare, in vain; they infested the stations, they intercepted the hunter and the traveller." "Some kept guard, while others labored; but while the women were milking the cows outside of the fort at St. Asaphs or Logan's station, they were suddenly fired upon by a large body of Indians, till then concealed in the thick cane, which stood about the cabins. By this fire, one man was killed, and two others wounded, one mortally; the residue with the women got into the fort.

When having reached the protection of its walls, one of the wounded men was discovered to have been left on the ground. Capt. Logan distressed for his situation, and keenly alive to the anguish of his family, who could see him from the fort weltering in his blood, exposed every instant to be scalped by the savages, endeavored

* Marshall, I, 49.

for some time in vain, to raise a party for his rescue. The garrison was, however, so small, and the danger so appalling, that Logan only met objection and refusal; until one John Martin stimulated by his Captain, proceeded with him to the fort gate. At this instant, Harrison, the wounded man, appeared to raise himself up on his hands and knees, as if able to help himself, and Martin deterred by the obvious danger withdrew. Col. Logan incapable of abandoning a man under his command, was only nerved to newer and more vigorous exertions to relieve the wounded man, who by that time exhausted by his previous efforts, after crawling a few paces, had fallen to the ground; Logan rushed forth and took him in his arms, amidst a shower of bullets from the enemy, many of which struck the pickets about the direction of his head, brought the wounded man in safety into the fort, and restored him to his despairing family. This anecdote well indicates the intimate ties of friendship among the pioneers, who would venture everything for the rescue of a fellow-woodsman from danger. Does such an action tell less honorably to the human heart, than similar devotion on a larger scale? Does it weigh less in moral estimation, because two men were principally concerned, instead of hundreds or thousands? To the mind of the author, the essence of exalted feeling and heroic affection is the same, upon all scales of action; and the numbers upon whom it may have operated, are only one of the extrinsic accidents.

Another danger soon assailed the little garrison of Logan's station: "there was but little powder or ball in the fort; nor any prospect of supply from the neighboring stations, could it even have been sent for without the most imminent danger."*

The enemy continued before the fort; there was no ammunition nearer than the settlements on Holston, distant about two hundred miles; and if the garrison should be compelled to surrender, it would be to horrors worse than any ordinary death—the torture of the savages. Nor was the task very easy, to pass through so wily an enemy; nor were the dangers and difficulty much lessened even beyond the circle of the besiegers, owing to the mountainous character of the way, it was necessary to pass, and among a foe scattered in every direction. Still Captain Logan was not a man to falter where duty called, although encompassed by danger. With two companions he left the fort in the night, and avoiding "the

* Marshall.

trodden way, by the Cumberland Gap, which was most likely to be waylaid by the Indians,"* explored his way over the Cumberland mountains with the hardihood of a soldier, and the sagacity of a hunter. Our hero went, where no man had been known to travel before, through brush and cane over rocks and around precipices, difficult enough to have daunted the most fearless and hardy.

In less than ten days from his departure, Capt. Logan having obtained the desired supply, and leaving it with directions to his men, how to conduct their march, arrived alone and safe at his "diminutive station," which had been almost reduced to despair. The escort with the ammunition, observing the directions given it, rrived in safety, and the garrison once more felt able to defend itself, and that it was master of its own fortune.

Still they were under the necessity of hunting for their support, which daily exposed them to the Indians, who infested the whole neighborhood. The fort remained in this hazardous situation from the 20th of May, 1777, until the month of September of the same year: when, most unexpectedly, Col. John Bowman arrived with a reinforcement of one hundred men. A detachment, considerably in advance of the main body, upon its approach to the fort, was fired at by the besiegers, and several of them killed; the rest made their way into the fort. This soon led to the dispersion of the enemy.

On the dead body of one of our men were found proclamations by the British governor of Canada, offering protection to such of the inhabitants as would abandon the rebellious colonies, and denouncing vengeance against those who refused. Thus was announced to these advanced posts of the western country, that the Indians and the British were united in the war against them. Logan, upon receiving these papers from the man who found them, thought it most prudent, in the harassed and distressed state of the garrison, rather than of the country, to conceal their contents.

The assistance of Col. Bowman was but temporary; "his men were engaged but for a short time, and much of that had expired on the road." Thus again, the garrison, deprived of its brief auxiliaries, was left to the resident inhabitants.† The Indians had not withdrawn from the country; and in addition to the distress of the exposed post, its ammunition was once more nearly exhausted.

* Marshall, I, 52.

† Marshall, I, 53.

"Again Logan left his family and his fort, to visit the settlements on Holston; with his usual promptitude and energy, he obtained the assistance sought, and returned in safety to his expecting friends.

Soon after his return, the force was augmented by a party under Montgomery particularly acceptable after the departure of Bowman with his brief command.*

A second attack was now made upon Boonesborough on the 4th of July, 1777, by an Indian force of two hundred warriors. In this attempt of the enemy, the garrison not half their number lost one man, and had two wounded; while the Indians had seven killed, as was seen from the fort, altho' removed from the ground—it is the pious and most tenacious custom of these people. This siege lasted "two days and nights," when the Indians losing hope of success tumultuously departed, under the concealment of the adjacent hills.† Notwithstanding these various sieges, the fields adjacent to the fort were cleared of their timber, and cultivated in corn and vegetables;" some keeping guard while others labored, and each taking his turn as a hunter, at great hazard. Yet amidst these multiplied and hidden dangers, the intrepidity of our hunters found it a relief, to take an equal chance with the enemy in the open woods. "They thought themselves the best marksmen, and as likely to see the Indian first, as to be seen by him; while the first sight was equivalent to the first fire, and the most expert shooter held the best security for his life."‡ The Indians had become shy of exposing themselves before the garrisons; and even in the woods took some precautions to avoid rencounters with equal numbers.

On the close of this most eventful year [1777], "the Indians disappeared for a while;" and the permanent settlements yet formed in Kentucky were at Boonesborough with twenty-two men; at Harrodsburg with sixty-five, and at Logan's Fort, or St. Asaphs, with fifteen. In this *army* of Kentucky, amounting to 102, a few less than the first band of pilgrims who landed on "New Englands rock-bound shore," the occasional militia, who visited the stations of Kentucky, are not counted.

With this small number of fighting men in the country, no lan-

* Possibly John Montgomery, who commanded a company in the Illinois battalion, and became Lieutenant Colonel in the regiment of the same name.

† Marshall.

‡ Marshall, I, 54.

guage can describe the distress, which was felt by its inhabitants, when intelligence was received, that Boone — the beau ideal of a woodsman—the leader and first pioneer in the country, with twenty-seven men was captured by the enemy at the Lower Blue Licks.*

The circumstances of this heavy misfortune were, that Boone with thirty men had gone about the 1st of Jan., 1778, "to make salt for the different garrisons in the country, where the people were in great want of that article, without the prospect of supply from abroad." On the 7th day of the ensuing February, while Boone was out hunting to obtain meat for the salt-makers, he fell in with a large Indian party and two Frenchmen, on its march to attack, for a third time, the devoted fort at Boonesborough. At this moment the Indians particularly wanted a prisoner, who might give them intelligence; and while Boone fled, some of the swiftest warriors pursued and overtook him. Eight days afterwards, they brought Boone to the Licks, where twenty-seven of his men surrendered as prisoners by a previous capitulation, in which they were promised life and good treatment. The other three men of the original party had been sent home with the salt, which had already been made. The difficulty of obtaining salt, and the severe want of it which was felt in the western country, at an early day, are but little known at this advanced period of its settlement. Yet at a comparatively recent time, the interior country, remote from navigable waters, was supplied by long lines of salt-packers conveying the precious condiment from the different licks, a thousand gallons of whose water would only afford a bushel of salt. The price of this most essential article has varied from two and five dollars per bushel to fifty cents for the same quantity its present price at St. Louis.

To return to our captured party; the Indians proud of their unwonted success, most fortunately for Kentucky, instead of pursuing their advantage against the weakened forts, and with such precious pledges in their possession, sweeping the land, by threatening to massacre their prisoners, returned to their homes, at Old Chillicothe, on the Little Miami. In justice to the ferocious foes of our countrymen, it must be acknowledged, that during a march of three days in cold and inclement weather, they treated their prisoners as themselves. "The generous usage," says Boone, "the Indians had promised before in my capitulation, was after-

* Boone's Narrative, in Filson, 18.

wards complied with." An instance of Indian faith which, if it had only been continued, might have saved both belligerents many ruthless scenes. But the truth is, that the Indian is not brought up to spare his enemies when in his power, or to murmur at the full practice on himself of all the torments authorized by *his* laws of war.

Early in June, 1778, a party of 450 warriors assembled at Chilicothe, armed and painted, in their usual terrific way, and bent on another expedition against the marked and signal object of Indian hostility and vengeance—Boone's Fort on the Kentucky river.—Now, for the first time, Capt. Boone derived pleasure from his captivity, since it gave him an opportunity of information of the utmost importance to his threatened garrison. This he determined at all hazards, to convey to it, in order to save it from destruction. How much must the simple woodcraft of Boone have won upon the Indians, to have permitted him to know, much more to witness their formidable military preparations! That he was a great favorite with them, in spite of his white skin, appears from the refusal of his captors to allow of his ransom, when offered by Col. Hamilton, the British governor at Detroit. The prisoner was too dear, even to gratify the love of tormenting a prisoner, or avidity for the tempting stores of British goods kept for liberal distribution among their red allies.

On the 10th of the month, before sunrise, "I departed," says the pioneer, "in the most secret manner, and arrived at Boonesborough on the 20th, after a journey of 160 miles, during which time I had but one meal." Never could an escape have been more providential for the redemption of our forlorn hope on the frontiers. The fort was in a bad state of defence; the garrison proceeded, however, to repair its flanks, strengthen its gates and posterns, and to form double bastions; all of which was completed in ten days."* At length another of the white prisoners, escaping from the enemy, informed our people, that the Indians, on learning Boone's elopement, had, according to their customs, postponed their expedition three weeks.

The Indians had sent spies out to view our movements; and were greatly alarmed, at our increase in number and strength. "The grand councils of the nation were held frequently, and with more deliberation than usual." They evidently saw the hour ap-

* Filson's Kentucky.

proaching, when the *Long Knife* would dispossess them of their domestic habitations, and anxiously concerned for futurity, determined utterly to extirpate the whites out of Kentucky.* Our forlorn hope was not intimidated by the fearful odds opposed to them; but in the face of a formidable invasion impending over them, Capt. Boone, about the 1st of August, 1778, undertook an expedition into the Indian country with a party of 19 men for the purpose of surprising a small Indian town, on the Scioto, called *Paint Creek Town.* "We advanced," says the daring invader, "within four miles thereof, where we met a party of thirty Indians on their march against Boonesborough, intending to join the others at Chilicothe. A smart fight ensued betwixt us; at length the savages gave way and fled." Learning from two of his scouts, who had been sent on to the town, that the Indians had deserted it, Boone returned with all possible expedition to assist the garrison at home. On the 6th of August, 1778, he passed a mixed party of Canadians and Indians, and on the 7th day the party arrived safe at Boonesborough."

Could active enterprise have been more gallantly displayed at the head of thousands, than by this sagacious and intrepid captain of forest rangers? In the face of an enemy twenty times his force, Boone carried the war into the enemy's country — into Africa. On the 7th of September, 1778,† an Indian army [if the term is not hyperbolical] consisting of four hundred men, commanded by Capt. Duchesne, with eleven other Frenchmen, and some Indian chiefs, invaded Kentucky. They marched up within view of our fort with British and French colors flying." Col. Bowman makes the number 350, and Blackfish [who had adopted Boone as his son, when a prisoner among the Indians,] was the commander. The fort was summoned in his Britannic Majesty's name, to surrender. Two days were requested for consideration, which were granted. It was now indeed, in the language of Boone, "a *critical* time" with the besieged; their numbers were small, "between 60 and 70 men, with a large number of women and children;"‡ the army before these rude walls was "fearfully painted, marking their footsteps with desolation." Death was, however, preferable to captivity among such an enemy, and could but be their fate,

* Boone's Narrative. Filson's Kentucky.

† See Bowman's Letter in Appendix, and Annals of the West, 2d edit., 220. Spark's Biography. Life of Boone, p. 18.

‡ Peck's Life of Boone, 79.

when the fort should be taken by storm. The beleaguered party concluded to maintain the fort to the last extremity. The horses and cattle were collected, it is said, strange as it appears, that the enemy should have allowed it, and brought into the fort; and on the 9th of September, 1778, Boone replied to the summons of surrender, that "they were determined to defend their fort while a man was living." Contrary to all expectation, the besieged were then informed, that it was the orders of Gov. Hamilton* to take them captive, and not to destroy them, but if nine of them would come out, and treat with them, they would immediately withdraw, and return home peaceably." Time was important to the garrison, in order to give opportunity for assistance to arrive. This had been sent for, to Col. Campbell on Holston, and this is, perhaps, the key to entertaining, on the part of Boone, [himself so experienced and prudent a warrior against Indians,] so insidious a proposal, carrying deception palpably on its face. The enemy's proposition was embraced; and Boone with eight others met the opposite party,† "and entered into a treaty within sixty yards of the fort." The Indians then came forward and informed Boone "that it was customary with them on such occasions, for two Indians to shake hands with every white man in the treaty, as an evidence of entire friendship;" "they immediately grapled us," says Boone, "but although surrounded by hundreds of savages, we extricated ourselves from them, and escaped all safe into the garrison, except one that was wounded." This was Squire Boone, brother of Daniel, the only one who was hurt by a heavy fire from the Indians. This escape seems extraordinary enough; yet it was personally confirmed to the industrious and latter biographer of Boone, by some of the actors themselves.‡

Yet they could not recollect how it was done; tho' they stated that the Indian was hardly ever equal to the white man in physical strength, and their party expecting mischief, was prepared.‖ This treaty, and the surrender of the saltmakers at the Blue Licks, became the subject of a military investigation as to Boone's conduct. And although not in the exact order of time, it may be well to add that the result was perfectly honorable to Boone; although the charges were exhibited by Col. Richard Callaway supported by Col. Logan. So satisfactory was his defence, that Boone was pro-

* The British commander at Detroit. † Boone's Life, 82.
‡ Boone's Life, by Peck. ‖ Idem, 84.

moted from the rank of captain to that of major. Nor is the slightest mention of the court martial in the history of the times.*

The enemy "now attacked us on every side, and a constant fire ensued between us day and night for the space of nine days. During the siege an attack was made to undermine the fort, which stood only sixty yards from the river bank; as soon as this was discovered by the muddiness of the water below the fort, produced by the excavated earth, a trench was cut to intersect the mine on the bank of the river. When the besiegers found out this, by the earth thrown out of the fort, they desisted from their stratagem; and on the 20th of September, 1778, raised the siege and departed.

During this formidable attack both in time and numbers, which seemed to threaten the garrison so fatally, when the enemy were assisted by white men from Canada, our people "had but two men killed and four wounded; besides a number of cattle destroyed." A degree of injury almost incredibly insignificant under such fearful odds of numbers; "while the enemy's loss amounted to thirty-seven killed, and a great number wounded." "125 pounds of bullets were picked up about the fort, besides those which had penetrated the logs of the walls."

Thus most fortunately for the gallant band of pioneers, surrounded in the heart of an Indian wilderness, hundreds of miles from the settlements of their countrymen, terminated an expedition strong enough under an energetic and persevering commander with suitable followers, to have stormed every fort in the country, and have swept it clean of our countrymen. Providence ordered it otherwise, and as the author rejoices to believe, for the good of the human race. This can never be extensively or permanently promoted, under the dominion of the ignorance, brutality and ferocity incident to the savage state, all over the world. These vices were exhibited in our own barbarian ancestors, before their conquest and civilization, by the Romans. Sickly must the benevolence of that bosom be, which sighs over the triumphs of civilized life, even in its ruder forms; for they are the harbingers of brighter and better days of diffusing light, learning and religion. These are the consolations, which Heaven presents the human race for the temporary strife and distress attending the conflict between barbarism and civilization. They are the price set by Providence on the blessings of higher social happiness, humanity and peace.

* Boone's Life, by Peck, and the inquiries of the indefatigable Lyman C. Draper have alone furnished this intelligence, 92.

ARTICLE III.

(From the American Railway Times.)

The Iron Interests of the United States.

We have referred to, and sincerely deprecated the attempt that is now being made in Congress to repeal the duty on foreign made iron. We think such a movement is unwise and perilous to one of the greatest, is not *the greatest* of American interests. Upon the first blush it would seem as if our opposition to the project, was not made with due reference to the railway wants of the country, and especially with regard to the thousand new and gigantic railway enterprises of the West and South. It is not so. We should like to see every one of these enterprises placed upon a substantial footing, so firm that nothing could prevent their rapid and immediate completion. We have none of that fear that is so loudly expressed by many in certain quarters, that we have too many railway facilities. We believe the general common sense of the country, the question of profit and loss as a commercial enterprise, will prevent this trouble, if the speculative fever of the more rash is not stimulated and fed by undue Legislative action. The majority of the persons who are now besieging Congress for land grants for railway purposes, care nothing for the good of the country or the local accommodation they prate about so glibly; they are only anxious to fill their own capacious pockets. The projects they are representing are many of them good, and if carried forward to completion, would be a benefit to the country; while others are valueless and not wanted. Allowing that the valuable part of these projects are wanted, would it be judicious to drive them forward at the present time, if by so doing they prejudice and destroy other interests of the most important national consideration? Let us be guided by a little common sense. A man in trade may think it a very fine thing to build a house costing some fifteen or twenty thousand dollars. But there are two things he will consider if he is wise, before he goes forward with his building projects. In the first place does he actually need it, and secondly, can he afford it? A negative answer to either branch of this proposition will prevent the expenditure. There are some things that man needs that he cannot afford to buy, and there are many things he can afford to buy that he does not need. Prudence then will dictate, that what he cannot afford to buy, he will let alone.

If, however, forgetting the dictates of prudence, he does buy what he cannot afford, the loss will fall upon others, and so those with whom he is trading will have to suffer for his want of prudence. His creditors, perhaps, are men of small means like himself, and by his bankruptcy are involved in distress and poverty. This seems a hard case, but the community in which the man lived would think it still a harder case, if, by some sudden Legislative

enactment, this man should be endowed with a power to buy his goods and provisions at half the whole sum they were compelled to pay for the same things. And it still would seem a hard case too, if by that same enactment he should be empowered to buy his goods so cheap that it would break up the entire business of his neighbors, who had for years been striving to build up a paying business upon small means. Do not some of our railway projects and their backers, taken in connection with the iron manufacturers of the Uuited States, stand somewhat in the above relation? Let us look at a few facts. In this country we use iron material in almost everything. In fact we can find no business or occupation with which it does not enter largely, and its use is every day increasing. In this country, likewise, we have iron ores and coal in such abundance, that if the mines were properly worked, we could supply the world for centuries, and still have an overplus in the crude state beyond human calculation. The country is yet young, and from the high price of labor and the want of experience, we have been unable to work our mining riches with such facility as to compete with our trans-atlantic neighbors who have greater means and experience. The consequence has been that we have been compelled to pay the foreign manufacturers a profit upon his labor and capital, and still pay a heavy amount for transportation. Once in a great while we have so adjusted the tariff that some efforts to manufacture our own iron would be crowned with partial success, when straightway down goes the tariff and in pours foreign iron in such quantities and at such prices, that our manufacturers were compelled to stop their works and go into some other business. This game of battle-door and shuttle-cock with the iron manufacturing interests of the United States, has been played for many years, and the foreign manufacturer so well understands his game, that it always ends to his advantage and to the disadvantage of this country. The price of iron guaged by our necessities, is regulated by a league of foreign manufacturers, and they are determined to have a monopoly of our market—to them the richess in the world. Let them understand that it is necessary to sell us at no profit for three or five years to retain our market and prevent our own manufacturing progress, and they will do it. They have the combined wealth and power to compel others to follow their lead. If the duty on foreign iron should be repealed in the United States, the price in England would immediately advance to such a point as would pay the highest profit to the foreign manufacturer, and still prevent our forges and furnaces from going into operation.

The present tariff, aided by a most extraordinary consumption of iron in this country, has allowed of some increase of our own manufactures. We have begun in some little degree to get our works going again. Some of these are doing a paying business, and should the present demand continue, and the tariff remain un-

disturbed, in a few years we should increase very considerably our home product, and so far make some progress in achieving a partial independence of the dictation of the foreign manufacturer. We could not do this with the present tariff, were we not aided by other circumstances of moment. It is well known that very large numbers of English iron workers have gone to the gold fields of Australia, and that consequently labor there is higher, and may continue so to be for some years. It would be wise for us at this juncture to take advantage of circumstances. Our national interest is pre-eminently the iron manufacture.—Every State in the Union is interested in it. Let the country remember the history of the cotton manufacturers in this country, and apply it to our iron interests. We now manufacture cotton cloth of almost every grade, and compete with those of England, even in her own markets. If we are wise, we shall foster our iron manufacturers to just such an end.

ARTICLE IV.

From Livingston's Law Reporter.

Newspapers and Public Libraries.

The origin of newspapers, like that of many institutions important to modern civilization, is to be referred to Italy The war which the Republic of Venice waged against Solyman II., in Dalmatia, gave rise, in 1563, to the custom in Venice of communicating the military and commercial information received, by written sheets (*notizie scritte*) to be read at a particular place by those desirous to learn the news, who paid for this privilege in a coin, not any longer in use, called *gazetta* — a name which, by degrees, was transferred to the newspaper itself in Italy and France, and passed over into England.* A file of these Venetian papers, for sixty years, is still preserved in the Magliabecchi Library at Florence. The first regular paper was a monthly, written, government paper at Venice; and Chalmers, in his life of Ruddiman, informs us that "a jealous government did not allow a *printed* newspaper; and the Venetian *Gazetta* continued long after the invention of printing, to the close of the sixteenth century, and even to our own days, to be distributed in *manuscript*." Those who first wrote newspapers were called, by the Italians, *menanti*, be-

* Some etymologists have thought the name *gazetta* is to be derived from *gazzera*, a magpie, or, in this case, a chatterer; others from the Latin *gaza*, which, being colloquially lengthened into *gazetta*, would signify a little treasury of news. The Spanish derive it, indeed, from the Latin *gaza*, [Greek, *gaza*] though their newspapers, least of all, deserve the name of treasure. They have a peculiar word, wanting in our idiom, *gazetista*, a lover of the gazette. The German *zeitung* is from the ancient *theidinge* or *theidung* [the English, *tiding*, the Swedish, *tidingar*.]

cause, says Vossius, they intended commonly, by these loose papers, to spread about defamatory reflections, and were therefore prohibited in Italy, by Gregory XIII., in a particular bull, under the name of *Menantes* (from the Latin *minantes*, threatening). Menage derives the name, with more probability, from the Italian *menare*, which signifies "to lead at large," or, "spread afar." Perhaps it will not be irrelevant, however, for the writer to remark, that it is common for the Mecklenburg peasantry, as he knows from experience, to call the newspaper *de Logenblad* (the lying paper); and the German proverb in use to this day, "He lies like print," (*er luegt wie gedruckt*,) is probably connected with this view of early newspapers.

The first English genuine newspaper appeared under Elizabeth, in the epoch of the Spanish Armada, of which several, printed when the Spanish fleet was in the English Channel, during the year 1588, are preserved in the British Museum; and it is very curious how much the mode of communicating certain kinds of intelligence in these early papers resemble the forms in use at present. The earliest newspaper is entitled "The English Mercurie," which, by *authority*, "was imprinted at London, by her highness's printer, 1588." These were, however, but extraordiuary gazettes, not regularly published. Periodical papers seem first to have been more generally used by the English during the civil wars of the time of the Commonwealth, to disseminate sentiments of loyalty or resistance. They were called *weekly news-books*. Though *Mercury* was the prevailing title of most, the quaintness which marks the titles of books in that age, is found also in the names of the "news-books;" for instance, the *Secret Owl*, *Heraclitus Ridens*, the *Weekly Discoverer*, and the *Discoverer Stript Naked*, &c. A catalogue of the Mercuries would exhibit a curious picture of those singular times.

We learn from Buckingham's specimens of newspaper literature, that the earliest newspaper established in North America was the *Boston News-Letter*, the first number of which was issued April 24, 1704.

A comparison of the number of periodicals and inhabitants of different countries, gives the following results:

In 1827, there appeared in Great Britain, 483 different newspapers and other periodicals to 23,400,000 inhabitants; in Sweden and Norway, 82 journals to 3,866,000 inhabitants; in the States of the Church, 6 newspapers to 2,598,000 inhabitants; (Stockholm, with 78,000 inhabitants, has 30 journals; Rome, with 154,000, only 3); Denmark, to 1,950,000 inhabitants, has 80 journals, of which 71 are in the Danish language; 23 are devoted to politics; 25 to the sciences. Prussia has 12,416,000 inhabitants, and 288 journals and periodicals. (Berlin has 221,000 inhabitants, and 53 periodical works; Copenhagen has 109,000 inhabitants, and 57 journals.) The Netherlands have 6,143,000 inhabitants, and 150 journals. In the German Confederation, (excluding Austria and Prussia,) there are 13,300,000 inhabitants, and 305 journals; in Saxony, to 1,400,000 inhabitants, 54 newspapers; in Hanover, to 1,550,000 inhabitants, 16 newspapers; in Bavaria, to 3,960,000 inhabitants, 48 newspapers. France, with a population of 32,000,000, has 490 periodical works, (660 printing establishments, 1,500 presses;) in Paris, 81 printing establishments, or 850 presses.

In Paris alone, containing 890,000 inhabitants, there are 176 periodical works.

The following table, arranged for the American Almanac of 1830, is corrected from the *Traveller*, and contains a statement of the number of newspapers published in the colonies at the commencement of the Revolution, and also the number of newspapers and other periodical works in the United States in 1810 and 1828:

States.	1775.	1810.	1828.	States.	1775.	1810.	1828.
Maine,			29	Georgia	1	13	18
Massachusetts	7	32	78	Florida		1	2
New Hampshire	1	12	67	Alabama			10
Vermont		14	21	Mississippi		4	6
Rhode Island	2	7	14	Louisiana		10	9
Connecticut	4	11	33	Tennessee		6	8
New York	4	66	161	Kentucky		17	13
New Jersey		8	22	Ohio		14	26
Pennsylvania	9	71	185	Indiana			17
Delaware		2	4	Michigan			2
Maryland	2	21	37	Illinois			4
Dis. of Columbia		6	9	Missouri			5
Virginia	2	23	34	Arkansas			1
North Carolina	2	10	20	Cherokee Nation			1
South Carolina	3	10	16				
				Total	37	358	802

The following is the state of the newspaper press in the U. S. in 1810, as extracted from a number of the *National Intelligencer:* New Hampshire, 12 papers, 624,000 circulation; Massachusetts, 32 papers, 2,873,000 circulation; Rhode Island, 7 papers, 331,800 circulation; Connecticut, 11 papers, 657,800 circulation; Vermont, 14 papers, 682,400 circulation; New York, 66 papers; 4,139,200 circulation; New Jersey, 8 papers, 332,800 circulation; Pennsylvania, 71 papers, 4,542,200 circulation; Delaware, 2 papers, 166,400 circulation; Maryland, 21 papers, 1,903,200 circulation; District of Columbia, 6 papers, 686,400 circulation; Virginia, 23 papers, 1,289,600 circulation; North Carolina, 10 papers, 416,000 circulation; South Carolina, 10 papers, 842,400 circulation; Georgia, 13 papers, 707,200 circulation; Kentucky, 17 papers, 618,800 circulation; Tennessee, 6 papers, 171,600 circulation; Ohio, 14 papers, 473,200 circulation; Indiana Territory, 1 paper, 15,600 circulation; Mississippi Territory, 4 papers, 83,200 circulation; Orleans Territory, 10 papers, 748,800 circulation; Louisiana Territory, 1 paper, 15,100 circulation. Total for the U. S., 358 papers; circulation, 22,222,200.

The North American colonies, in the year 1720, had only seven newspapers; in 1810, the United States had 358; in 1825, they had 640; in 1830, 1,000, with a population of 13,000,000.

ARTICLE V.

From the American Railroad Journal.

Probable Effect of an European War upon American Securities.

An European War being certain, one of the most interesting problems involved, as far as this country is concerned, is its probable effect upon the intrinsic and marketable value of our securities, particularly those issued on account of railroads, and works of similar character.

From the intimate relations which subsist between the United States and all the commercial nations of Europe, each is, to a certain degree, necessarily affected by the condition of the other. If one be prosperous, all share in this prosperity. If the contrary be the fact, all suffer. At the present day, no nation, however independent its action, and however free from political and diplomatic entanglements, can escape the effect of the conduct or condition of its neighbor. Commercially, they belong to one community. If a paralysis strike a particular branch of industry of one of the members, it falls upon a corresponding branch of that of another. Should cotton spinning in Great Britain cease, the production of the raw material in this country would be largely curtailed. If European nations become too poor to purchase our staples, their previous value is the measure of our loss. Our people, therefore, are to be effected by a war in the same manner as those of France or England, only in a vastly *less* degree.

But the efiect of a war will extend beyond the mere influence it exerts upon the price of our staples. An *opinion* adverse to one of our more important interests, may do us as much harm as would the loss of one of our leading crops.—Should a war create a distrust as to the value of European securities, and depress their *market* value, a similar sentiment, by necessary sympathy, would cross the Atlantic, and exert a similar effect upon the securities of this country. There may be no necessary reason for such coincidence, and no satisfactory explanation for it. The price of English consols has certainly nothing to do with the value of Erie or New York Central stocks, yet the quotations of the latter dance attendance upon the former with as much certainty as the shadow does the substance.

The first shock that European securities reveived, was consequently followed by a corresponding decline of those of the United States, in obedience to what seems to be an unvarying law. We may always calculate a certain result in this country to be due to a real or assumed condition of affairs in Europe. But in the present case, there are other reasons than those named, why this country should feel the effects of an European war. For several years past our people have been in the habit of borrowing large

sums from abroad for the prosecution of our public works. It has been foreign capital that has enabled our people to accomplish no small part of the immense results that have been achieved. If the whole, or a considerable portion of this supply be cut off, the entire burden of the construction of our public works will be thrown upon our own people. This fact must draw large sums from other investments, and create a general stringency, the effect of which must be to reduce the market value of *all* our securities.

The prospect of war has already produced the results we have described. It has almost entirely checked the flow of European capital to this country—imposing upon our own people the burden of providing themselves the whole cost of our public works. A depressed share and bond market is the necessary result.

The *degree* of the depression of the market value of the securities of this country will depend, to a very considerable extent, upon the degree of the fluctuations in Europe. But as the causes that will produce, for a time, similar results, are *different*, our own market must recover its tone so soon as it is seen that the real value of our securities are not impaired, and so soon as our people adapt themselves to the altered state of affairs. The market now yields to a sentiment borrowed from abroad, and to a condition of things in this country, which must work its own cure. An European war certainly will not diminish the earnings of our railroads. Thus far it has added largely to their earnings, by the increased price created for many of our more important staples, which is rapidly drawing them from the interior to the seaports. The internal trade of the country was never so active as at the present time. Our railroads were never before so successful. The earnings of the entire investment in the United States are at least 25 per cent. greater than at a corresponding period the past year. With an equal ease in the money market, it may be confidently stated, that quotations would at the present time rule from five to ten per cent. higher than last year. The investment is worth such an advance were its value to be measured by the amount of income.

We cannot at so early a period, estimate the influence of an European war upon this country. There seems to be no probability, however, that this country will, in any way, become a party to it. Our people, true to their money-loving instincts, will think it a good time, while the rest of Christendom is at war, to do the work of the world, and charge their own price for it. It may turn out that commerce can only be safely carried on through the medium of *American* bottoms. Should the war become general, provisions of all kinds must command a high price. The only staple, the price of which would be injuriously effected, would be *cotton*, so that on the whole were this country not indebted to Europe, and had we not been accustomed to rely upon European capital to carry forward our works, it seems probable that the first

effect of a war would apparently be favorable. It would increase the value of most of our products. It would give additional employment and higher wages, to many of our more important interests, which would nearly balance the injury that others would suffer. It would in the end result in sending a large amount of capital into the country, as the stability of our institutions, the prosperity of our people, the intrinsic value of our investments, would contrast most favorably with what the old country would show. Such must be the case so soon as we become *acclimated* to the new state of things, and so soon as the favorable contract referred to, can be properly appreciated. Whether peace or war be the state of Europe, the greater value of investment in this country must be seen and acknowledged, and must continue to attract to it, steadily increasing amounts of foreign capital.

While, therefore, we think it very probable that a rapid decline of the securities of this country may follow a similar decline in Europe, this fact does not in the slightest degree invalidate their value. Should foreigners see stocks quoted in our market at a lower figure than *cost*, there is no occasion for distrust or alarm, nor is there any reason to suppose that they have paid more than the securities they hold are worth. The depression will be temporary. The state of Europe has not affected their *value* in the slightest degree. The railroad investment in this country was never worth so much as at this instant. We have regarded the stringency which has prevailed for the past nine months as calculated to produce the most beneficial results. Had the money market continued easy, our people under the flush and excitement of success, would have rushed wild into visionary projects. Upon such, an effectual quietus has been put. Under the present state of the market, rival, or useless, roads will *not* be built. The roads that are constructed will, consequently, become all the more valuable. A stringency in our money market, therefore, should assure, instead of frightning, the holder of stocks or bonds. A depression in prices merely indicates what is to *him*, a wholesome state of things; not that his investment is the less valuable, but in fact more so.

Under such circumstances, to return securities to this country for sale, would be the greatest folly. Such a course pursued to a considerable extent would defeat the object of returning them. It would only serve to depress still more their value. As their *intrinsic* value is entirely independent of their *market* value, the two will harmonize in our own markets, so soon as the present causes of the depression, which are accidental and temporary in their character, shall cease to operate.

ARTICLE VI.

[From the Southern Quarterly Review.]

Material Progress of the United States.

Report on the Seventh Census, with accompanying Tables. By J. D. B. DE BOW, Superintendent United States Census. Washington: 1854.

The results of the seventh census of the United States just published, are calculated to excite pleasurable emotions in the heart of the philanthropist, as evincing the progress which republican civilization has made over purely monarchical systems of government, and as conducting to show the inherent energies which a free people eminently possess, in planning and laying the foundation of their political and social welfare. These results involuntarily suggest contrasts with the condition of other and older nations, who have enjoyed uninterrupted happiness, so far as a different form of government could confer it, for centuries, and whose political integrity has been maintained throughout the revolutions of contemporaneous history. So recent are the events which led to the discovery and European occupation of the territories of the United States, that it seems but yesterday, that the Indian of the Southwest tilled the earth by digging with fish bones, and whose crops for breadstuff were the wild persimmons which grew luxuriantly over his unhedged plains. So recent, that the red man of the West dwells on the verbal traditions of his fathers, as still monarchs of the North; and the octogenarian can point to Bunker Hill, as being still unstained, in his boyhood's day, with the blood that achieved our independence. Thus, as it were, our nativity was of yesterday—our nationality commenced with to-day. It has not passed through the ordeal of a thousand years, nor yet hardly attained the experience of active puberty. It has yet to reach maturity—to stand before the world in the attitude of full grown manhood, armed at all points with the weapons of peace, and in the unreserved possession of the faculties and powers of a Colossus. The utmost license to speculation, has fallen behind the reality of our progress thus far; what that progress may be hereafter, the most sanguine anticipation may be inadequate to determine.

We have said that involuntary comparisons are suggested with other nations, whose forms of government differ from our own. We believe that naturalists have not gone quite so far, as to accord to one genera of the Caucasian family, pre-eminence over another; nor will we assume that, morally and physically, the Anglo-American is superior to the Anglo-Saxon. If, on this score, there is a universal parity in the Caucasian family, it follows that the prosperity, activity, enterprise and intellectual progress of one offshoot

of the family over another, have their origin and inspiration, in the government which such nation adopts, and in the character of their freedom, and the moral efficacy and utility of the institutions which they erect. In this respect, no example of ancient or modern times compares with our own—which incontestibly proves, that the true theory of human happiness and success, consists in the liberty of physical pursuits, and the imposition of only such laws as are calculated to promote and consecrate our freedom.

The contest of progressive rivalry in the nineteenth century, has been confined to the United States, France and Great Britain. But both France and Great Britain had passed through almost every political stage toward the attainment of a perfect state of government, before the birth of the American Union. Both had invoked the philosophy and experience of twenty centuries to aid in constructing their social fabrics, and to vindicate every resort to revolution, to bloodshed, to tyranny, or to anarchy. They had built upon the splendid sites, vacated alternately by barbaric and civilized monarchies or commonwealths; and had endeavoured, by cautious diplomacy and rigid discipline, to avoid encountering those fearful disasters which had befallen those cities and empires, which had crumbled and strewn Europe and Asia with their ruins. The people of the United States, on the contrary, had come hither, not only actuated by various and opposite motives, but from countries recognising conflicting systems of government, and severally imbued with antagonistical feelings and prejudices—some seeking an asylum from oppression—some led by a spirit of adventure; some to expiate crimes in banishment; some to better their fortunes; and some, who preferred hardships and exile, with freedom of conscience, to ease and luxury with a trammelled conscience. And of this people—strangers to each other, strangers in their intercourse, and strangers in their sympathies — it was expected to make a nation, unanimous in sentiment, harmonious in action, and concurrent in popular suffrage! How could it be believed, that these adverse and diverse elements should co-operate, fraternize and counsel together, and, as by a word, put all the wheels of a civil and practical government in motion? The leading nations of Europe, of which France and Great Britain were the eminent representatives, had been influenced by circumstances, and tutored by expediencies, until the population of each had been moulded to a unity, and the bond of sympathy, superadded to that of interest, was made complete. They had reached, at the time of the American revolution, that social condition which is wanting in none of the essential qualities of a united family, nor of the filial instincts which become potriotism or martyrdom, in the devotion with which the subject serves his king. But it was a happy coincidence that brought a union among the American colonies; for otherwise, being in the social condition we have described, without any political organization, whatever, as a whole, a hundred years

might have passed, and found them more unprepared for a sudden transition, than they were then. The cause that united them upon the instant, was not only sacred and holy — for even such considerations, although they create sympathy, do not always inspire concert of action—but it was one of those threatened evils, which seemed to embody every wrong, outrage, fraud or oppression, which the colonists, individually, had suffered under their own government, and from which they had severally fled. And now, that this embodiment, in the shape of a gigantic scourge, was about afresh to assail them—men who perilled their lives, and that of their families, in the new world, to escape from it—a thrill of spontaneous resistance penetrated every bosom, and the unhealed wounds of each made every one a friend, a brother, or a patriot. It was this final consideration that bound the revoluionists, as by a bond more sacred and more fearful than an oath—their mighty wrongs — and which, to the astonishment of Europe, discovered them presenting their breasts, at the first murmur of war, like a wall between their oppressors and their domestic hearths.

But, although Europe found a living rampart in these devoted enemies of tyranny, it also found them unexperienced in government, and greatly at fault in matters of science and art. "A terrible interest," said a parliamentarian, at that day, "may serve to unite that people in what concerns their liberty; but without laws, without government, and without experience—an amalgamation of elements without order and without reserve—a merely excited populace, bent on mischief—it is doubted whether they can even found a government, to say nothing of perpetuating it, or giving to it, by their enterprise or progress in the arts of peace, the *prestige* of a name."* Poor sagacity, and still more miserable reasoning! The war swept over. It left the land desolate; but it had spared the sons and fathers of many a martyr. These men inherited or continued to cherish all their dislike to the governments, the laws, and other authors of their banishment. The feelings by which they had been prompted to enlist in defending their country, they brought into play when they came to consider that a government was to be formed, and was to be left as a heritage to their posterity. Each contributed his share in framing a constitution. Each detailed the grievances, [giving example in his own case,] which might be apprehended from vesting too much or too little power in the proper sources. And, in this way, the evils of every pre-existing form of government were understood, acknowledged and guarded against, in the federal charter; and that instrument has, by its operation, shown the expediency of admitting, on the witnessstand, the scars and unhealed wounds of the early colonists, souvenirs of the false theories of government

* North: "British Orators."

elsewhere, to any logic which might have fallen from lips merely trained to declaim.

England and France, as representatives of civilization in Europe, be it remembered, had not yet exhausted the list of purely doctrinal governments. They continued [they have since continued] to invent, after the fathers of the revolution pronounced their labours complete. The wide difference was, and is, that the latter brought to bear the fruits of practical experience from every portion of Europe, and incorporated that experience in the instrument which they framed. The former, who have had no such fountain of information whence to draw supplies, have merely discarded one theory for another, and are, consequently, behind us nearly eighty years in liberty and legitimate legislation. Having attained the primary object of human welfare—the establishment of civil institutions — we have had little to exercise our thoughts but to develop our genius, and push our enterprise to the extent of our ambition. This must account for our unrivalled progress —the realization of that greatness which is as astounding to the rotten despotisms of Europe, as it is gratifying to every well-wisher of the Union.

In order to comprehend fully this greatness, we have combined with the census statistics that follow, official data relative to the external commerce of the country.

One hundred and fifty years ago, the colonies contained a little over 260,000 white inhabitants, scattered throughout eleven of the now states of the Union. In 1790, the population was 3,929,827; and it is now, [1850,] 23,191,876. Our territorial acquisitions and original possessions extend over an area of nearly 2,000,000,000 acres, or over 2,900,000 square miles. The slopes, or those portions of the United States and territories, which are watered by rivers falling respectively into the two oceans and the Gulf of Mexico, are as follows:

	Square miles.
Pacific slope	778,266
Atlantic slope	967,576
Mississippi valley	1,237,311
Total	2,983,153
Territorial surface of Europe	3,684,832

	Square miles.	
Viz:—Russia and Poland	1,999,783	
Italy	135,288	
Germany	90,620	
Prussia	107,921	
Great Britain and Islands	120,500	
France and Corsica	203,736	
Rest of Europe	1,026,984	3,684,832

The continent of America, unlike the continent of Asia and

Europe, has its extreme length from north to south. Europe and Asia have their extreme lengths from east to west, and their river basins and river courses slope toward the Arctic and Antarctic regions, or in directions opposite to the great maritime and commercial markets of the world. The United States can have intercourse, by a near route either with India, by the Cape of Good Hope, or the Islands of the Pacific and China, without conferring any transit benefits on either Europe or Central Asia; but Europe and Asia, trading from the Atlantic or Mediterranean, must cross our continent to reach the Pacific seas by a short route, and, of course, contribute, by the intertransit trade, to the welfare of the people of the continent. Nature has also graduated the great slopes of America, that even the principal products of South America, and of Central America, must seek a market outlet in the Gulf of Mexico, which we virtually command, and there mix with the products of the Mississippi valley, which are brought from the region of fur and peltries, to where the sugar-cane introduces us to the climate of the tropics and their fruits. The great basins of both hemispheres measure nearly 9,000,000 square miles, of which Europe, Asia and Africa, have something over one half, and the United States enjoys the control and advantages of the remaining 3,600,000 square miles. The basins of the old world are separated by immense deserts, irreclaimable plateaus and chains of impassable mountains; and their rivers flow in adverse channels to each other, and in directions unfavourable to the changes and wants of commerce. The basins of America concentrate their waters and their products in the Gulf of Mexico, in the bays of the Atlantic coast, or in the harbours of California or Oregon. We have not yet learned to appreciate the value of these bounties, nor can we justly estimate them while a drain upon the productive capacity of our soil, and a limit to the rise of our rivers, remain to be ascertained by the hundreds of millions who may follow us.

But important as rivers are to the hygiene of a country, and essential to its soil, man has invented a substitute for the natural canal, in the railroad, which begins to interlace and connect continent with continent. In this, as in other respects, the American people seem to have taken the lead, as the subjoined authentic record will show.

Railroads of the United States, December, 1854.

States.	No. of roads.	In operation. Miles.	Constructing. Miles.	Cost. Dollars.
Maine	11	417	90	12,662,645
New Hamphire	16	512	34	16,185,250
Vermont	7	410	59	13,866,190
Massachusetts	43	1,283	48	55,602,687
Rhode Island	1	50	00	2,614,484
Connecticut	15	669	83	20,857,357
New York	31	2,382	564	94,361,262
New Jersey	11	437	00	12,736,505

Pennsylvania	64	1,464	987	58,494,675
Delaware	2	16	43	600,000
Maryland	3	597	30	26,024,620
Virginia	21	673	1,180	12,720,213
North Carolina	4	359	243	6,947,421
South Carolina	9	661	288	13,287,093
Georgia	15	884	445	16,084,872
Alabama	6	221	659	3,636,203
Mississippi	4	155	436	3,070,000
Louisiana	8	170	239	1,661,000
Texas	1	00	92	00
Tennessee	9	388	695	7,800,000
Kentucky	9	233	552	4,909,990
Ohio	46	2,609	1,582	50,775,344
Indiana	19	1,127	868	22,400,000
Illinois	26	1,262	2,017	29,581,204
Michigan	3	570	41	16,559,000
Wisconsin	4	178	200	3,800,000
Iowa	2	00	480	00
Florida	2	54	00	250,000
*Missouri	9	50	963	1,000,000
Total	398	17,811	17,898	508,588,03

At this moment we have in operation in the United States 18,000 miles of railroad, over which, it is computed, cars of all kinds pass 216,000 miles daily, or 67,578,000 [Sundays excluded] annually, and over which 10,800,000 passengers are carried daily, or [Sundays excepted] 3,333,450,000 annually. This estimate may appear high; but when we come to consider that a large interest is annually paid on $509,000,000 first required to build these roads; that heavy outlays are constantly incurred for machinery, to supply losses by wear and tear, to meet salaries, rents, &c., and that railroad companies make money by their operations, it will not appear so extravagant as at first glance it may seem.

And these railroads, which are but one of the means of intercourse employed by commerce, and in other relations of life, convey to the sea-board those products and manufactures which principally go to make up the maritime and commercial wealth of the nation, and, by their exchanges, the revenues which support the government. Our imports and exports now exceed $430,000,000 per annum; and add to this our lake and river trade, amounting to $586,780,131, which is demestic mostly, but for promoting which the railroad is an indispensable agent, and we have an aggregate trade conducted in our waters of $1,016,780,131. The internal and external trade of Great Britain and Ireland does not exceed six hundred millions of dollars per annum, while ours amounts to more than a thousand millions — and all this accomplished in the lapse of seventy-six years!

* We have taken the liberty of correcting the above items relating to Missouri, as follows: No. of roads, 5. Miles in operation, 38. Miles constructing, 1,200. Cost in dollars, $1,700,000.—EDITOR.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE

Latest Offiicial

EXPORTS.

States.	Domestic produce	Foreign produce	Total.
Maine	$1,668,274	$49 544	$1,717,818
New Hampshire	67,204	2,254	69,458
Vermont	216,088	172,025	388,113
Massachusetts	14,144,001	2,402,498	16,546,499
Rhode Island	174,115	5,060	179,175
Connecticut	505,904	270	506,174
New York	74,042,581	13,441,875	87,484,456
New Jersey	1,438		1,438
Pennsylvania	5,552,449	306,122	5,828,571
Delaware			
Maryland	6,514,641	153,220	6,667,861
District of Columbia	79,005		79,005
Virginia	2,721,707	2,950	2,724,657
North Carolina	572,276	4,123	576,399
South Carolina	11,670,021		11,670,021
Georgia	4,999,015	75	4,999,090
Florida	2,511,976		2,511,976
Alabama	17,383,581	2,123	17,385,704
Louisiana	48,808,169	250,716	49,058,885
Mississippi			
Tennessee			
Missouri			
Ohio	353,514		313,514
Kentucky			
Michigan	132,366	12,786	145,152
Illinois	51,325		51,325
Texas	229,334	483,741	713,075
California			
Minnesota			
	$192,368,984	$17,289,382	$209,658,366
	17,289,382		
Total exports,	$209,658,366		Total Imports,
	Excess of imports over exports,		

UNITED STATES, FOR 1852.

Return.

IMPORTS.		
In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.
947,926	147,051	$1,094,977
68,661	14,658	83,319
192,593		192,593
22,306,206	11,198,583	33,504,789
191,062	10,618	201,680
376,278	18,397	394,675
101,476,789	30,852,517	132,329,306
	2,491	2,491
9,098,424	5,687,493	14,785,917
5,620,114	1,099,872	6,719,986
54,142		54,142
362,768	373,090	735,858
167,547	132,941	300,488
1,742,492	433,122	2,175,614
264,789	210,136	474,925
28,757	1,956	30,713
233,564	354,818	588,382
9,732,977	2,324,747	12,057,724
256,504		256,504
914,826		914,826
775,190	157,026	932,216
185,559		185,559
191,976	4,264	196,240
3,995	837	4,832
65,328	12,564	77,892
		4,648,587
	1,207	1,207
$155,258,467	$53,038,388	$212,945,442
53,038,388		
$212,945,442		
209,658,366		
$3,287,076		

It ceases to surprise that the United States, as a confederacy, has attained to a commercial prominence that places it in the first rank of the nations of the globe, and promises, in a few years, to acquire even greater importance ; but it is particularly a striking fact, that the new states west of the Ohio and Mississippi, which, until as late as 1845, continued to import through the ports of the Atlantic, now conduct a foreign traffic on their own account, and have opened their harbours to admit the vessels of distant governments through the medium of our magnificent rivers and lakes. These facts are worthy of remark ; and further, that the southern Atlantic and Gulf states, so long dependent on the ports of New-York, Boston and Philadelphia, have pushed forward their enterprise, until New Orleans may justly claim to be the fifth maritime city of the world, and Charleston, Savannah, Richmond and Mobile, in a fair way to achieve that reputation, as mercantile cities, which is their natural due.

We regret that our limits will not suffer us to take up, or pursue at present, any one of the score of interesting and instructive topics of which this copious and laborious volume is suggestive. It only remains to us to pay a passing compliment to the skill, knowledge and great industry of its editor, Professor De Bow. This gentleman was evidently born in a world of figures ; and if there be any sign in the heavens, exercising a planetary influence over statistician, that sign was lambent over his cradle in the hour of his nativity. His first vision was of railroads and the growth of cities ; his first mental effort was directed to the measurement of canals, rivers and lines of telegraph. We suppose his next performances to have been a gratuitous census of his native city, and the distribution, under the several heads, of the several subjects of white and black, births and deaths, rich and poor, wise and simple. And so he has worked on, little by little, until now, when he finds it easy to take the two hemispheres between thumb and forefinger, and lift them up, and place them alongside of one another, in close contrast and comparison of all their several characteristics and peculiarities. More seriously, Professor De Bow devoted himself to the study of statistics, and with such a degree of industry and ability, as to rank second to none in the country, in the department which he has undertaken. His statistical experience fits him eminently for the business of the census bureau, and as an auxiliary to the home department of state. His labours on the seventh census fully justify his selection for this useful and laborious office. His information is the natural fruit of his employment, for ten years, in the editorial charge of one of the leading statistical journals in the country. He seems to have brought it all to bear in the execution of this important work. The public, who were familiar with his more elaborate volumes, published a year or two ago, upon the "Industrial Resources of the South and West," were prepared to expect much from his labours in the cen-

sus office, and they have not been disappointed. He has devoted himself assiduously to his duties; and, so far as the present volume is concerned, completed them in a much shorter period, and at greatly less expense, than was anticipated by those who were familiar with the condition and duties of the office. He has yet to prepare another edition of this work, in smaller size, better suited for popular use, and for a place in the popular library. In this latter work, he is to condense the materials of the present, and when this is done, the public at large will be better prepared to understand and to appreciate, the great extent and importance of his labours. Of these, we have spoken in language of well merited praise, with the smallest glance at this publication will suffice to justify.

Article VII.

From the Report of John Wilson, Commissioner.

Public Lands.

Pre-emption Laws–Education Endowments–Railroad Grants.

The extension, by the act of 3d March last, of the pre-emption privilege to the alternate reserved sections along the lines of railroads, and to lands previously reserved on account of claims under French, Spanish, or other grants, which have been or hereafter shall be declared invalid by the Supreme Court of the United States, has enabled many of the settlers on such lands to secure their homes. An amendment should be made to this act, however, to exclude from its provisions all such lands as may be needed for public uses. A further extension, however, of the general pre-emption law, would seem to be necessary to render even-handed justice to all. By the sixth section of the act of 3d March last, the unsurveyed lands in California, with certain exceptions, and on specified conditions, were made subject to pre-emption. There is no reason of policy or propriety why this provision, with several limitations and conditions, should not be extended to all the land States. Too much cannot be said of the energy and enterprise of this class of our people. They are the pioneers of civilization and Christianity. They have pressed forward from the Alleghanies to the Pacific, opening roads, bridging the streams, felling the forests, and cultivating the prairies. Before them the wild beasts of the forest have passed away, and, like a bulwark, they have stood in front of their less daring and adventurous fellow-citizens, who have followed on and peopled the countries thus opened up for them. It is, then, but a small gratuity for such

services that they shall be permitted to purchase their homes at the government price, without competing with speculators for the fruits of their own toil, hardships, and privations. It is therefore earnestly recommended that this extension be accorded to them.

I beg to advert to a recommendation heretofore made, of a grant of land for educational purposes in this District. Here, under the fostering care ef the government, model schools could be founded, for imparting instruction in literature, mechanics and agriculture, and civil institutions established, on the plan of the Military and Naval academies, in which improvements in every branch of the arts could be tested and brought successfully into use; and where, in fact, youths from all parts of the country could be prepared to act as instructors in these useful and important branches, and thus disseminate throughout the land the benefits of scientific education.

A thorough knowledge of agricultural chemistry, especially when combined with geology, mineralogy, and metallurgy, would enable the farmers and planters of our country to develop the whole wealth of their respective regions, frequently at inconsiderable expense, causing barren lands to produce abundant crops, and withdrawing from their secret recesses in the bosom of the earth, the mineral treasures deposited therein.

The citizens of the District look to Congress for that assistance, in these particulars, which others receive from the legislatures of the States; and the means of disseminating science and useful information, thus established here, would advance the best interests of the country at large, and materially aid in perpetuating the blessings of civil and religious liberty.

The great increase in sales and locations of land for the last fiscal year, and in the third quarter of the current calendar year, mentioned in a former part of this report, has occurred in those States where railroads have been projected and grants made for them, or where such works are in contemplation, or by the proposed construction of the Sault Ste. Marie canal. As evidence of this fact, I would state that the lands withdrawn from sale in Illinois, to enable that State to select those granted to her by the act of 20th September, 1850, were again brought into market in July, August, and September, 1852, deducting, of course, the 2,595,053 $\frac{14}{100}$ acres selected by her under that grant.

During the fiscal year ending the 30th June last,

in that State there were sold for cash.....	298,861	acres.
Located with land warrants.....	2,509,120	"
Total.....	2,807,981	acres.

Being about one and a quarter million more than all the lands sold (excluding the locations of warrants,) during the preceding fiscal year, in all the land States and Territory. This increase would no doubt have been greater if the main body of these lands had been in market in the beginning of the last fiscal year, which was

not the fact. The following statement of the amount of sales for cash, along the route of this road in the several districts in Illinois, from the time these lands were thus brought into market in 1852, to the 30th of September, 1853, more strongly evinces the effect that road has had upon the sale of these lands:

District.	No. of acres sold at the double minimum.	No. of acres sold above the ordinary minimum, and above and below the double minimum.	Average No. of years that these lands were in market, at the minimum of $1.25 p. ac. from the time originally offered to 1850, when they were withdrawn from the market.
Chicago	28,400	2,000	13
Dixon	21,480	160	9
Danville	125,240	40,360	19
Vandalia	69,520	320	28
Palestine	7,920	720	28
Shawneetown	3,680	200	34
Kaskaskia	27,840	.....	34
Springfield	.....	4,560	20
Total	284,080	48,320	
	48,320		
Aggregate	332,400		

In Missouri, the lands along the supposed routes of the several railroads for which grants were made by the act of 10th of June, 1852, were withdrawn from market on the following day. As those roads had not then been located, these reservations were made more extensive than the lateral lines mentioned in the act, to enable the State to select the best route for each. The excess outside the fifteen-mile limits, ascertained after the survey of the roads, was restored to market on the 5th July, 1853, and hence could only affect the sales for the third quarter of that year. The following statement shows the amount of land sold during that quarter of the three preceding years, in each district:

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
	3d quarter.	3d quarter.	3d quarter.	3d quarter
St. Louis	4,958.68	18,022.54	1,903.73	*41,308.67
Palmyra	5,253.28	17,672.89	709.92	34,469.65
Fayette	3,786.09	9,178.04	89.52	28,765.76½
Clinton	10,730.20	17,311.04	none.	104,627.93
Jackson	5,546.01	9,468.58	5,879.48	16,858.62
Springfield	4,848.71	15,218.05	13.36	53,891.43
Plattsburg	9,750.04	17,593.90	994.07	15,035.23
Milan	3,375.47	6,883.14	2,050.39	†23,882.16

* No sales in August, 1853, there being no register. † No sales in July, 1853.

Here, although the lands sold were fifteen miles or more from the route of the road, the increase has been very great; and I have no doubt, when the alternate sections within six miles, and those between the six and fifteen mile limits, are brought into market, that the increase will be equal to that of Illinois.

In Mississippi the sales have been very limited for several years. On the 20th September, 1850, the lands in Augusta and Columbus districts, along the proposed route of the Central railroad from Chicago, in Illinois, to Mobile, in Alabama, were withdrawn from market, and were not again thrown open to entry until the 26th September, 1853, for the Augusta district, and 19th September, 1853, for the Columbus district. In the former district there were but five days left in that month for sales to be made, and in the latter twelve days. The September return being the last received from those districts, I have caused a comparison to be made between sales for that month in 1853, and for the same month in the four preceding years, and the result is as follows, to wit:

Augusta, September, 1849.....	424.95 acres.
Augusta, September, 1850.....	311.47 "
Augusta, September, 1851.....	40.65 "
Augusta, September, 1852.....	2.48 "
Augusta, September, 1853.....	19,530.47 "

These 19,530 acres, at $1.25 per acre, would amount to $24,413.09; but the actual amount received was $34,056.78, making an increase over the ordinary minimum of $9,643 69.

In the Columbus district this comparison is as follows, to wit:

	Cash sales.	Warrants loc'd	Total acres.
September, 1849	$1,722.58	636.65	2,359.23
September, 1850.....	1,907.69	359.31	2,267.00
September, 1851.....	611.90	632.60	1,244.50
September, 1852.....	834.74	2,316.51	3,151.25
September, 1853.....	16,664.04	5,840.69	22,504.73

In the Sault Ste. Marie district, in Michigan, the entries for the second and third quarters of 1852 amount to 40,689.65 acres; and, for the second and third quarters of 1853, to 89,073.81 acres.

This great and extraordinary increase in the amount of lands disposed of in these several sections of the country, remote from each other, can only be accounted for by the improvements referred to: in fact, so great is the increase in the value of lands, that land warrants and land scrip are nearly up to the par or face value. If, then, no other reason existed for such grants, this one, on the score of sound economy, would be sufficient. Many of these lands, however, have been in market long enough for the interest to amount to much more than the principal; and during all this period the States were deprived of the right and benefit of taxa-

tion. The lands donated for the construction of these improvements, and those thus entered, must of necessity be cultivated, to enable the holders to pay the taxes, and from this legitimate source of revenue great pecuniary benefit will be derived by the States. This cultivation, as a matter of course, will increase the amount of grain and stock in the country; and with these increased facilities for sending those products to market, will reduce the price of living, and thus benefit the whole community. They will also reduce the price of transportation for the manufactures and imports of the seaboard, and so reduce the price of those articles to the settler, and proportionally increase the quantity used, and of course the profit to the manufacturer and importer. The mail facilities furnished by these lines of intercommunication will be of great advantage to the government and the entire community; and in case of war, if hostilities were brought to our own borders, the advantages furnished by them for transporting men and military stores are almost inappreciable. Another and very great benefit derived from these improvements, is the amount of capital and labor carried into the hearts of the several States by their construction. Hundreds of thousands of laborers can find constant employment on them, and each, by a very small amount of labor, can secure the blessings of a "homestead," without feeling degraded by having it conferred on him as a gratuity, even if it were constitutional thus to benefit a few at the expense of the many, or compatible with the pledges heretofore given in relation to the public lands.

It is not my purpose at this time to discuss the principles of the "homestead" measure, my views on that subject having been fully presented in a communication of the 18th June, 1852, to the chairman of the Committee on Public Lands of the Senate, in answer to a call from him; but it must be obvious that the friends of that measure can in this way accomplish all that is desired by it, without any of its objectionable features.

To grants of this character for railroads, canals, &c., not one tangible or substantial objection can be presented. The increased value given to the lands enables the government to get double price, and a ready sale for those retained, and hence the grant costs them nothing. The same reason removes all difficulty in relation to the pledge given by the United States, at the cession of these lands, that they should be considered a common fund, for the use and benefit of all the States, and renders them more available towards meeting the obligation imposed on them by the act of 28th January, 1847, that the proceeds should be set apart for the payment of the public debt created by that act. Let these railroads and canals be completed, and the husbandman will no longer have reason to complain that his grain remains ungarnered from year to year because there is no mode of sending it to market; it will all be eagerly sought after, and with his surplus stock will be sent abroad over the land, to feed thousands of his less

fortunate fellow-beings, while he will thus be made to rejoice in the prosperity secured by his honest toil and industry, saying nothing of the advantages to the business and finance of the country.

Moreover, these means of intercommunication, like iron bands, will unite the whole country together by a community of interest and feeling, and, like the arteries of the human system, will disseminate to every part the benefits of home production, and of the Eastern, Pacific, and Atlantic trade, when the great California railroad shall have been completed.

The recommendation heretofore made is therefore renewed, that liberal grants for all such objects be made, under suitable restrictions.

From the annexed statement E, which exhibits the present condition of the public lands, it will be seen that many millions of acres are now subject to entry, presenting to the settler every variety of soil and climate, rich in inexhaustible fertility and the valuable timber it bears, and in many sections containing mines of the precious metals, and of copper, iron, and coal.

PRE-EMPTION RIGHTS.

The following circular received by D. C. Tuttle, Esq., Register of the United States Land Office, in St. Louis, is carrying out a suggestion in the preceding report, and will be a source of satisfaction to the pioneers. Would that the cause of Geological Education and of the Mississippi Valley Railroad, were promoted, by grants of land by Congress, in accordance with the spirit of the suggestions of the liberal and enlightened Commissioner of the General Land Office.

PUBLIC NOTICE.

General Land Office, April 5, 1854.

Whereas, By an act of Congress approved March 27, 1854, entitled "an act for the relief of settlers on lands reserved for railroad purposes," every settler on public lands "which have been or may be withdrawn from market in consequence of proposed railroads, *and who had settled thereon prior to such withdrawal*, shall be entitled to pre-emption *at the ordinary minimum*, to the lands settled on and cultivated by them: *Provided*, they shall prove up their rights according to such rules and regulations as

may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Interior, and pay for the same before the day that may be fixed by the President's proclamation for the restoration of said lands to market;" public notice is hereby given, by direction of the Secretary of the Interior, that all such settlers will be entitled to the right of pre-emption given by the said act, upon furnishing PROOF, (satisfactory to the district office,) that the settlement on which the claim is predicated, is of a character to entitle the settler to a right of pre-emption, under the provisions of the act of 4th September, 1841, and was made by such settler *prior* to the "withdrawal" of the land for the purpose stated, no "declaration," of course, being necessary under the circumstances: *Provided*, Payment be made for the same, "before the day that may be fixed by the President's proclamation for the restoration of said lands to market."

JOHN WILSON, Commissioner.

SWAMP LANDS OF ILLINOIS AND MISSOURI.

Statement showing, in each land district in the States of Illinois and Missouri, the number of acres of land returned by the surveyor general for Illinois and Missouri, to the Commissioner of the General Land Office, under the act of Congress of September 28, 1850, donating swamp and overflowed lands, &c.

MISSOURI.—District.	Acres.	ILLINOIS—District.	Acres.
		Quincy	146,816.66
Springfield	34,974.46	Shawneetown	508,769.46
St. Louis	11,063.14	Danville	476,301.01
Jackson	1,848,237.80	Kaskaskia	113,639.15
Palmyra	63,241.94	Vandalia	215,490.73
Fayette	67,996.66	Palestine	153,558.89
Plattsburg	312,145.46	Chicago	124,556.47
Milan	197,413.04	Edwardsville	104,477.02
Clinton	230,899.07	Dixon	369,762.63
		Springfield	157,263.26
Total	2,765,971.75	Total	2,370,635.28

JNO. LOUGHBOROUGH,
Surveyor General.

SURVEYOR GENERAL'S OFFICE,
St. Louis, October 29, 1853.

GENERAL LAND OFFICE STATISTICS.

E.—Statement showing the areas of the several land States and and the amount unsold and undisposed of

States and Territories.	Acres of land States and Territories, exclusive of water.		Surveyed up to June 30, 1853.	Unsurveyed June 30, 1853.
	Sq. miles.	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*
Ohio	39,964	*25,576,960	16,770,984	.....
Indiana	33,809	*21,637,760	21,487,760	.....
Illinois	55,410	35,462,389	35,462,389	.....
Missouri	65,037	41,623,680	41,450,589	173,091
Alabama	†50,043	†32,027,490	31,993,813	33,677
Mississippi	†37,337	†23,895,680	23,895,680	.....
Louisiana	41,346	26,461,440	22,791,338	3,670,102
Michigan	56,243	35,995,520	34,861,075	1,134,445
Arkansas	52,198	33,406,720	33,276,171	130,549
Florida	59,268	37,931,520	23,036,462	14,895,058
Iowa	50,914	32,584,960	25,670,859	6,914,101
Wisconsin	53,924	34,511,360	22,337,402	12,173,958
California	188,981	120,947,840	.....	120,947,840
Minnesota Territory	141,839	90,776,960	1,222,288	89,554,672
Oregon Territory	341,463	218,536,320	1,945,777	216,590,543
New Mexico Territory	210,744	134,876,160	.....	134,876,160
Utah Territory	187,923	120,270,720	.....	120,270,720
Northwest Territory	528,725	338,384,000	.....	338,384,000
Nebraska Territory	136,700	87,488,000	.....	87,488,000
Indian Territory	187,171	119,789,440	.....	119,789,440
Total	2,519,039	1,612,184,919	336,202,587	1,267,026,356

* Includes reserves under deeds of cession.

† Exclusive of Chickasaw cession.

‡ Includes the estimated quantity of 560,000 acres of the Des Moines river grant, situated in this State, between the Raccoon fork and source of said river.

GENERAL LAND OFFICE STATISTICS.

Territories, the amount of land disposed of by sale or otherwise, on the 30th June, 1853.

Offered for sale up to June 30, 1853.	Sold up to June 30, 1853.	Donations & grants for schools, universities, &c.	Grants for deaf and dumb asylums.	Grants for internal improvements.	Grants for individuals and companies.
Acres.	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*
16,770,984	12,660,205.71	727,528	.....	1,242,001.77	32,141.24
21,485,802	15,988,071.25	673,357	.....	1,609,861.61	843.44
35,454,262	16,307,192.47	1,001,795	.....	500,000.00	954.64
41,186,654	10,973,537.25	1,222,179	.....	500,000.00	.....
31,903,283	11,774,545.38	925,814	21,949.46	500,000.00	1,981.53
23,892,577	†9,939,144.14	860,624	.....	500,000.00	15,965.31
19,231,161	3,615,109.49	832,124	.....	500,000.00	8,412.98
31,354,803	9,455,449.13	1,113,477	.....	1,250,000.00	4,080.00
32,618,409	3,425,547.07	932,540	2,097.43	500,000.00	139,366.25
18,876,615	1,056,536.65	951,583	20,924.22	500,000.00	52,114.00
21,439,698	2,932,020.66	951,224	.....	‡1,385,078.22	18,226.86
20,733,849	5,045,242.56	1,004,728	.....	929,736.00	5,705.82
.....	.....	6,765,401	.....	500,000.00	.....
1,330,707	24,754.59	5,089,244	.....	§340,000.00	.....
.....	.....	12,186,987	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	7,493,120	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	6,681,707	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
316,278,804	103,197,356.35	49,416,435	‖44,971.11	10,757,677.60	279,792.07

§ Is the estimated quantity of 340,000 acres of the Des Moines river grant, situate in this Territory, as above.

‖ Not finally closed.

GENERAL LAND

E.—Continued.

Statement showing the areas of the several land States and Ter- the amount unsold and undisposed of

States and Territories.	Grants for seats of government & public buildings	Grants for military services.	Reserved for salines.	Reserved for benefit of Indians.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ohio	.....	1,771,263.96	24,216	16330.73
Indiana	2,560	1,200,656.61	23,040	126220.71
Illinois	2,560	8,745,930.68	121,629	48989.69
Missouri	2,560	2,131,963.20	46,080	22587.61
Alabama	1,620	740,084.95	23,040	2542378.82
Mississippi	1,280	155,383.21	.....	277612.04
Louisiana	.....	507,470.30	.....	.....
Michigan	13,200	946,803.59	46,080	109300.83
Arkansas	10,600	1,627,433.05	46,080	.....
Florida	6,240	272,519.81	.....	227.49
Iowa	3,840	4,284,173.30	46,080	119183.34
Wisconsin	6,400	2,360,937.17	46,080	137894.27
California	.....	.....	.....	.....
Minnesota Territory	.....	97,360.00	.....	.....
Oregon Terr	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Mexico Terr	.....	.....	.....	.....
Utah Terr	.....	.....	.....	.....
Northwest Terr	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska Terr	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indian Terr	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	50,860	24,841,979.83	422,325	3400725.53

* Reported by State authorities.

OFFICE STATISTICS.

E.—Continued.

ritories, the amount of land disposed of by sale and otherwise, and on the 30th June, 1853.

Reserved for companies, individuals and corporations.	Confirmed private claims.	Swamp lands granted to States.	Railroad grants.	Total unsold & unappropriated, of offered and unoffered lands, June 30, 1853.
Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
8805976.00	26459.80	*25640.71	.....	244196.08
149102.00	329880.53	*1286827.44	.....	246339.41
.....	188901.61	†1833412.94	2595053	4115969.97
.....	1362455.10	*2178716.43	460800	22722801.41
.....	213386.65	*2595.51	230400	15049693.70
.....	688083.25	*1824812.11	549120	9083655.94
.....	2092903.91	*9771275.51	.....	9134143.81
.....	126711.25	*6788124.72	.....	16142293.48
.....	118451.12	*8690016.75	2189200	15725388.33
305.75	3739789.00	*2065605.49	.....	29262674.59
.....	.....	*7198.05	.....	22773175.57
.....	36880.99	†1259269.00	.....	23678486.19
.....	.....	No estimate	or report	113682436.00
.....	.....	.....	.....	85225601.00
.....	.....	.....	.....	206349333.00
.....	.....	.....	.....	127383040.00
.....	.....	.....	.....	113589013.00
.....	.....	.....	.....	338384000.00
.....	.....	.....	.....	87488000.00
.....	.....	.....	.....	119789440.00
8955383.75	8923903.21	35798254.66	6024573	1360070681.89

† Estimated.

Historical and Commercial Statistics of Chicago.

We have just received a pamphlet entitled "The Railroads, History and Commerce of Chicago," containing three articles published in the *Daily Democratic Press*, which shows the Herculean aid rendered by railroads, in building up and maintaining the present famous prosperity of the GARDEN CITY.

We have room at present to quote only a part, and condense the balance of the second article, hoping hereafter to furnish further data from this interesting and valuable publication.

"The River and Harbor Convention which commenced its sessions in this city on the 5th of July, 1847, gave the second great and permanent impulse to Chicago. After the disastrous speculating mania of 1836–37, the city gradually sunk in public favor, till 1842, when the lowest point was reached, and business began to revive. The progress of the city, however, was slow till its advantages were in some measure appreciated and made known by the intelligent statesmen and business men from every part of the Union, who were present at that convention. To the editors, who were present, is Chicago specially indebted, for extending a knowledge of her commercial position. The opening of the Illinois and Michigan canal, in the spring of 1848, gave a marked impetus to our trade, and tended still further to attract the attention of the country to the Garden City. On the 22d of January, 1850, the Galena Railroad was opened forty-two and a half miles to Elgin, and in a very few months demonstrated the important fact, that, owing to the cheapness with which railroads could be constructed in Illinois, they would pay a large dividend to the stock holders. Eastern capitalists saw that the Mississippi valley was the place to make profitable investments, and in 1851 the chartes of the Illinois Central Railroad turned the attention of the whole Union to Chicago, and made her future pre-eminence no longer doubtful. The completion of the Michigan Southern and the Michigan Central Railroads in 1852, added much to the prosperity of the city; and the commencement of the Rock Island Railroad in the spring of the same year, its rapid progress and immense business, and the fact that Chicago is one of the greatest railroad centres in the country, have all tended to increase our population at the rate of *fifty-seven per cent.*, during the past year—a ratio never before witnessed in the United States, except in California.

With these improvements, there has been a corresponding change in the business of the city. In the fall of 1847, when we first saw Chicago, the business of our merchants was confined mainly to the retail trade. The produce, that was shipped from this port, was all brought to the city by teams. Some of them would come a hundred and fifty miles. Farmers would bring in a load of grain

and take back supp'ies for themselves and their neighbors. Often has it happened, that they would get "sloughed," or break their wagons, and between the expense of repairs and hotel charges, they would find themselves in debt when they got home. During the "business season" the city would be crowded with teams. We have seen Water and Lake streets almost impassable for hours together. The opening of the canal in 1848, made considerable change in the appearance of the city, and when the Galena Railroad was finished to Elgin, the difference was very striking. The most of those old familiar teams ceased to visit us, and we heard some few merchants gravely express the opinion, that the canal and railroads would ruin the city. The difference they have made is simply that between a small and a large business; between a retail and a wholesale trade. One of the principal Jewelry and Gold and Silver establishments in the city in 1845 did a business of $3,000; last year the same house sold goods to the amount of $120,000. Drug stores, whose sales eight years ago were from five to six thousand dollars, now do a business of from fifty to a hundred thousand. The hardware, Dry Goods and Grocery business will show similar and some of them still more remarkable results. We have made repeated efforts to get at the exact figures in each department of trade, that we might make comparisons between the last and preceding years, but we are sorry to say that many of our merchants are very reluctant to give us any figures; lest the extent of the commerce of Chicago should become known, and merchants from other cities should come here and divide their profits. A more narrow-minded, injurious policy, in our judgment, could not be adopted.

The transactions in produce, since the opening of the canal and railroads make but little show in the streets, but they are immense. We can name five houses, each of whose business foots up to from eight hundred thousand to a million and a half of dollars p. year. To see these gentlemen in the evening, quietly chatting on the state of the markets, at the Tremont, one would hardly suspect that their purchases for the day, had amounted to five or ten, or sometimes perhaps to fifty thousand dollars.

We have some interesting facts and figures to present, and commence with

Real Estate.—The appreciation in the value of real estate in Chicago is truly amazing. To those who have always lived in towns and cities on the seaboard, that were "*finished*" before they were born, the facts, we are about to give, will be scarcely credible. They are, however, plain, sober truths, which, if any one doubts, he can verify at his leisure. — Real estate in Chicago now has a positive business value, below which it will never be likely to sink, unless some great calamity should befall the whole country.

Like all Western cities, Chicago has had her reverses. In 1835 –6 real estate had a fictitious value. The whole country was mad with the spirit of speculation. When the crash came, in the latter part of '37, hundreds in this city found themselves bankrupt.— Real estate went down to a very low figure, reaching "*bottom*" in 1842. Since then, it has been steadily rising with the increasing prosperity of the country, and if the judgment of our most cautious, far-seeing business men can be trusted, it will never be any less. That judgment is based upon an array of facts. the accuracy and influence of which, upon the growth of Chicago cannot be doubted. In only one year from the first of January next, we shall have four thousand miles of railroad centering in this city, counting in most cases their extension only in a single State beyond our own; and what is of more importance, they penetrate one of the finest agricultural regions that can be found in any country. By that time, the Sault Ste. Marie canal will be done —opening to our commerce the rich mines of Lake Superior. The iron and the copper of that region will here meet the coal from our State, and build up the most extensive manufactories upon the continent. One of the finest canals in the world connects us with the Illinois and Mississippi rivers, and in addition to all this, Chicago holds the key to the commerce of our magnificent lakes, giving us a coasting trade when lake Superior is opened to us by the Ste. Marie Canal, of three thousand miles. The most sagacious statesmen, and the ablest commercial men in this country and in Europe have, therefore, a broad basis for the opinion that Chicago is soon to take rank among the three largest cities, and ere long as the second city upon the American continent.

The rise in real estate, and the prices at which it is now sold in view of such facts are easily explained. The following table, made up from the records of the original sales in this city, will be found very interesting. — The last column showing the present value of property, is the average of the prices at which they would now sell, as given us by three of our oldest and most reliable real estate houses in this city. Many of the owners we presume would not sell at these figures, and we have no doubt should any of this property be put in the market, it would readily command at least the estimated value given in the table. The price of "the lands" may appear enormous, but four of the parcels are now in the thickly inhabited parts of the city, and the valuation is probably below rather than above the mark.

We quote only the sum total of the items in the table; the amount of which is as follows:

Value of certain lots in Chicago, in 1854,	$3,770,800
Original price of the same lots in 1830,	4,511

There is we believe but one of the above lots, and only a fraction of that, which is now in the hands of the original purchaser.

That is the lot owned by P. F. W. Peck, Esq., and in reality he was not the first purchaser, for it is the same lot bought by Mr. Peck of Mr. Walker — the receipt for which was quoted in the "History of Chicago." That receipt was recognized by the commissioner and the deed was made directly to Mr. Peck.

Our citizens have all noticed the splendid drug store of J. H. Reed & Co., No. 144 Lake street. The day it was opened, Oct. 28, 1851, we stood in front of the store conversing, with the owner of the building, Jeremiah Price. Esq Pointing to one of the elegant windows, said Mr. Price, "I gave $100 in New York for that centre pane of French plate glass. That is exactly what I paid Mr. J. Noble for this lot, 80 feet front on a part of which the store stands, when I purchased it in 1833." That lot cannot now be bought for $64,000. Wolcott's Addition, on the North Side, was bought in 1830 for $130. It is now worth considerably over *one and a quarter million* of dollars. Walter L. Newberry, Esq., bought the 40 acres which forms his addition to Chicago, of Thos. Hartzell, in 1833, for $1,062. It is now worth half a million of dollars, and what is fortunate for Mr. Newberry he still owns by far the largest part of the property. So late as 1843 one half of Kinzie's addition, all of Wolcott's addition, and all of block 1, Original Town, were sold for $20,000. They are now worth, at a low estimate, $3,000,000. Any number of similar instances might be given of the immense appreciation of real estate in Chicago.

The following table exhibits the total valuation of real and personal property in Chicago as taken from the Assessor's books for a series of years. It must be remembered, however, that property is assessed at far below its real value:

1839	$1,829,420	1847	$6,189,385
1840	1,864,205	1848	9,986,000
1841	1,888,160	1849	7,617,102
1842	2,325,240	1850	8.101,000
1843	2,250,705	1851	9,431,826
1844	3,166,945	1852	12,035,037
1845	3,669.124	1853	22,929,637
1846	5,071,402		

The following shows the assessed value of the different kinds of property for the last year. The lands are within the city limits; but are not yet divided into lots:

Lands	$5,481,030
Lots	12,997,977
Personal property	4,450,630
	$22,929,637

It will be noticed that the value of property has nearly doubled in the year 1853. — This fact corresponds very well with the increase of population, that being *fifty seven per cent.*

Churches.—We stated in our History that the Methodists were the pioneers among all religious sects in Chicago. They were re-

presented here in 1831–2–3 by the veteran Missionary preacher, Jesse Walker. The first quarterly meeting was held here in the fall of 1833 in Watkin's school house. The building stood on the south-west corner of Clark and Old North Water streets. There were present at that meeting John Sinclair, presiding elder; Father Walker, missionary; William See and William Whitehead, local preachers; Chas. Wisencraft, Mrs. R. J. Hamilton and Mrs. Harmon. In the spring of 1834 the first regular class was formed. Father Walker had previously built a log courch at "the Point," which had been occupied for holding meetings for a year or two. Soon after the class was formed in the spring of 1834, a small frame church was built upon North Water street, between Dearborn and Clark streets. The lot on which the church now stands, corner of Clark and Washington streets, was purchased in 1836, and in the summer of 1838 the church was moved across the river on scows and placed upon the lot. It was enlarged several times to accomodate the increasing congregation. The present church was built in the summer of 1846.

The First Presbyterian is the oldest church in the city. It was organized on the 26th of June, 1833, by its first pastor, Rev. Jeremiah Porter, now of Green Bay. Mr. Porter was chaplin of a detachment U. S. troops, who came here from Green Bay early in that year. When organized it consisted of twenty-five members of the Garrison. The names of the citizens who united with it were —John Wright, Philo Carpenter, Elders; Rufus Brown, John S. Wright, J. H. Poor, Mrs. Elizabeth Brown, Mrs. Mary Taylor, Mrs. E. Clark, Mrs. Cynthia Brown.

Ten churches have since been organized in whole or in part from this church. It is now in a very flourishing condition under the pastoral care of Rev. H. Curtis.

The first Catholic church in Chicago was built by Rev. Mr. Schoffer, in the years 1833–4. It was located somewhere in State street. It now stands in the rear of St. Mary's Cathedral, and is used by the Sisters of Mercy as a school room. St. Mary's is the oldest Catholic church in the city. It was opened for divine service on the 25th of December, 1843. Its pastors then were Revds. Fischer and Saint Pailais, now Bishop of Vincennes. The house was completed by the late Bishop Quarter, and consecrated by him December 5th, 1845.

St. James is the oldest Episcopal church in the city, it was organized in 1834. The following were the first members: Peter Johnson, Mrs. P. Johnson, Mrs. Juliette A. Kinzie, [wife of J. A. Kinzie, Esq.,] Mrs. Frances W. Magie, Mrs. Nancy Hallam, Mrs. Margaret Helm.

The first Baptist church was organized by Rev. A. B. Freeman, on the 19th of October, 1833. The following were its first members: Rev. A. B. Freeman, S. T. Jackson, Martin D. Harmon,

Peter More, Nath'l Carpenter, John K. Sargents, Peter Warden, Willard Jones, Ebon Crane, Samantha Harmon, Lucinda Jackson, Betsey Crane, Hannah C. Freeman, Susannah Rice.

The first church erected by this society was built on North Water street—the precise time we cannot give. In 1843–4 the society built a large brick house on the lot now owned by them on the south side of the public square. It was burnt down in October, 1852. A new church is now in process of erection which will cost at least $25,000.

The first Sunday School in Chicago was established by Philo Carpenter, Esq., and Capt. Johnson, in August, 1832. Mr. Carpenter, in company with G. W. Snow, Esq., arrived here on the 30th of July, 1832. The school was first held in a frame, not then enclosed, which stood on ground a short distance northeast of the present residence of Mrs. John Wright on Michigan Avenue. It is now washed away. The school consisted of thirteen children. It was held during the fall of that year and the next season, above the store of P F. W. Peck, Esq., at the south-west corner of Lasalle and Water streets. — Rev. Mr. Porter also preached in the same place. In the fall of 1832 Chas. Butler, Esq., of New York, presented the Sunday School with a library, and it soon increased to 40 or 50 members.

The first Congregational church was organized on the 22d of May, 1851, on the west side of the river.

The following is the present list of churches and ministers in Chicago:

Protestant Episcopal.—Trinity Church, Madison, near Clark street, Rev. W. A. Smallwood, D. D., Rector. St. James Church, corner of Cass and Illinois streets, R. H. Clarkson, Rector. Church of the Atonement, corner of Washington and Green strs., west side, Dudley Chase, Rector. St. Paul's Free Chapel, Sherman, near Harrison street, J. McNamara, Rector. Grace Church, corner of Dearborn and Madison streets, C. E. Swope, Rector. St. Ansgarius Church, corner of Indiana and Franklin streets, Gustavus Unonius, Rector.

Presbyterian.—First Presbyterian Church, corner of Clark and Washington streets, Harvey Curtis, Pastor. Second Presbyterian Church, corner of Wabash Avenue and Washington street, R. W. Patterson, Pastor. Third Presbyterian Church, Union street, between Randolph and Washington streets, west side, E. W. Moore, Pastor. North Presbyterian Church, corner of Illinois and Wolcot streets, north side, R. H. Richardson, Pastor. Reformed Presbyterian Church, Fulton street, corner of Clinton, west side, A. M. Stewart, Pastor.

Congregational. — First Congregational Church, Washington street, between Halsted and Union, west side. Plymouth Congre-

gational Church, corner of Dearborn and Madison streets, N. H. Eggleston, Pastor. New England Church, corner of Wolcott and Indiana streets, J. C. Holbrook, Pastor. South Congregational Church. There is preaching regularly by Rev. E. F. Dickenson, at the Church near American Car Co.'s Works, at half past 10 o'clock, A. M., every Sabbath. Also, at 3 P. M., at the New Congregational Meeting House, corner of Clark and Taylor streets, near the Southern Michigan Railroad Depot.

Lutheran.—Norwegian Church, Superior, between Wells and Lasalle streets; Paul Andersen, Pastor. German Church, Lasalle, between Indiana and Ohio streets; J. A. Fisher, Pastor. German Church, Indiana street, near Wells; Augustus Sello, Pastor.

Baptist.—First Church, burned down, now worshipping in the old Presbyterian church, on Clark, near Madison st.; J. C. Burroughs, Pastor. Tabernacle Church, Desplaines, between Washington and Madison streets, west side; A. Kenyon, Pastor. Salem Baptist Church, Clark street, between Jackson and Van Buren; J. R. Balme, Pastor.

Methodist Episcopal.—Clark Street Church, corner of Clark and Washington sts.; J. Clark, Pastor. Indiana Street Church, between Clark and Dearborn streets; S. Bolles, Pastor. Jefferson Street Church, between Madison and Monroe strs., west side; E. H. Gammon, Pastor. Owen Street Church, corner of Owen and Peoria streets, west side; S. Guyer, Pastor. Clinton Street Church, between Polk and Taylor, west side. Harrison Street Church, near State street; F. A. Reed, Pastor. German Church, Indiana street, between Wells and Lasalle sts.; C. Winz, Pastor. German Church, Van Buren street, corner of Griswold; A. Kellener, Pastor.

Methodist Protestant.—Methodist Protestant Church, corner of Washington and Jefferson streets; Lewis R. Ellis, Pastor.

Catholic.—Cathedral of St. Mary's, corner of Madison street and Wabash Avenue; Patrick Thomas McElhearne and James Fitzgerald, Pastors. St. Patrick's Church, corner of Randolph and Desplaine streets; Patrick J. McLaughlin, Pastor. Holy Name of Jesus Church, corner of Wolcott and Superior streets, north side; Jeremiah Kinsella, Pastor. St. Peter's Church, [German], Washington, between Franklin and Wells streets; G. W. Plathe, Pastor. St. Joseph's Church, [German,] corner of Cass street and Chicago avenue, north side; Anthony Kopp, Pastor. St. Louis Church, [French] Clark, between Adams and Jackson st.; I. A. Lebel, Pastor. St. Michael's Church, corner of North Av. and New Church street; E. Kaiser, Pastor. Church St. Francis Assisium, west side; J. B. Weicamp, Pastor.

New Jerusalem—Swedenborgian.—Place of worship, corner of Dearborn and Randolph streets; J. R. Hibbard, Pastor.

Unitarian.—Unitarian Church, north side of Washington st., between Clark and Dearborn; R. R. Shippen, Pastor.

Universalist.—Universalist Church, south side of Washington street, between Clark and Dearborn; L. B. Mason, Pastor.

Jewish Synagogue.—Clark street, between Adams & Quincy; G. Schneidacher, Pastor.

COLLEGES, SCHOOLS, &c.—The common Schools of Chicago are the pride and the glory of the city. The school fund is ample, and every child in the city can obtain the elements of a good English education *free of charge.* We have now six large public school edifices, two in each division of the city. From three to seven hundred children are daily gathered in each.

Besides these we have a large number of private schools and seminaries where those who wish can educate their children.

We have an excellent Commercial College, at the head of which is Judge Bell. The Catholics have a college, and the Methodists are also about to establish and endow a University. We have also a most excellent Medical College.

The educational facilities of Chicago may therefore be regarded as of a very high order.

BANKS, BANKING, &c.—Had we space to write out the history of Banking in Illinois, and especially in Chicago, it would present some interesting topics for the contemplation of the financier. We have had two State Banks. The first was established early in the history of the State, and though the most extravagant expectations were entertained of its influence for good, its bills soon depreciated very rapidly, and for the want of silver change they were torn in several fragments and passed for fractions of a dollar. It soon became entirely worthless. The second State Bank was chartered by the session of the Legislature in the winter of 1834–5. In July of '35, it was determined to establish a branch here; but it was not opened till December of that year.—In the financial embarrassments of 1837, the bank stopped specie payment, but continued business till 1841, when it finally suspended. For the ten succeeding years, we had no banks of any kind in the State. These were dark days for Illinois. She annually paid banking institutions of other States immense sums of money in the shape of interest for all the currency she used.

Tired of this system, a general banking law, modeled after that of New York, was passed, and on the 3d of January, 1853, the Marine Bank in this city commenced business. The law is regarded as rather too stringent by our bankers, and hence they do not procure bills for a tithe of the capital they employ. The following table shows the number of banks in this city and the amount of bills they have in circulation:

	Bills in circulation.
Exchange Bank of H. A. Tucker & Co.	$50,000
Marine Bank	215,000
Bank of America	50,000
Chicago Bank	150,000
Commercial Bank	55,000
Farmers' Bank	50,000
Union Bank	75,000
Merchants' and Mechanics' Bank	54,700
City Bank	60,000

The capital of these Banks is in some instances half a dozen times the amount of their circulation. The banking capital actually employed to do the business of the city, must amount to several millions, and yet so rapid is the increase of trade, that money within the last six years has never borne less than ten per cent. interest. This is the legal rate established by the laws of Illinois. Most of the time money can be loaned from one to two per cent. per month, by those who are willing to take advantage of the opportunities which are constantly offering. We presume that hundreds of thousands of dollars could be safely invested at any time within a week or two. at the legal rate of interest. We have never seen the money market of Chicago fully supplied at the regular legal rate, viz: *ten per cent.* per annum.

The following is a list of the private bankers and brokers doing business in Chicago: R. K. Swift, Jones & Patrick, Sheldon & Co., J. M. Adsit, F. G. Adams & Co., N. C. Roe & Co., Davisson, McCalla & Co.

Several of these firms are doing a large business. R. K. Swift is doing a very extensive business in foreign exchange, and has arrangements to draw on every principal city in this country and Europe.

We have tried to obtain the figures showing the actual amount of exchange drawn on New York and other American cities, and the cities of Europe; but some of our bankers, like a portion of our business men, are unwilling to furnish such facts lest, as we infer, other capitalists should send their money here for investment. Their narrow policy we trust will be of no avail in that regard, for they will always have as much business as they can possibly do, and the fact that the legal rate of interest is *ten* per cent., and that the money market has never yet been fully supplied, together with the certainty that Chicago will not be "finished" for the next century at least, will induce a still larger number of eastern capitalists to invest their money in Chicago. There is not in the wide world, a city that furnishes opportunities for safer investments than Chicago; whether the money is employed in banking operations or is loaned on real estate security.

PRICE OF LABOR. — In a city growing as rapidly as Chicago, labor is always in demand. Especially is this true where every department of business is equally active and increasing. In dull times, and in cities which have passed the culminating point of their prosperity, master mechanics can select their journeymen, and do somewhat as they wish. For the last year or two, so great has been the demand for labor, that those who worked by the day or week were the real masters, for good mechanics could command almost any price they chose to ask.

The following table, carefully prepared, shows the price now usually paid to journeymen in this city. The range is large, but it is not wider than the difference in the skill and capacity of different men in every occupation:

Occupation.	Wages per day.		Earnings p. week and for piece & job work.	
Blacksmiths and Iron workers	$1.25@	2.00		
Blowers and Strikers	88	1.00		
Butchers	1.00	3.00		
Choppers and Packers	1.25	2.00		
Carpenters	1.50	2.00		
Cabinet makers	1.00	2.00	9.00@	18.00
Upholsters			9.00	18.00
Coopers			9.00	12.00
Day laborers	1.00	1.50		
Hatters			12.00	20.00
House Painters	1.25	1.75		
Harness Makers and Saddlers			6.00	15.00
Masons and Plasterers	1.50	2.00		
Marble cutters	1,75	2.00		
Machinists	1.00	2.50	12.00	18.00
Printers, comp. 30c. p. 1000 m's	1.67		12.00	18.00
Rope Makers	1.50			
Ship Carpenters and Joiners	1.50	2.25		
Ship Caulkers	2,25	2.50		
Stone Cutters	1.75	2.00		
Shoemakers			6.00	12.00
Trunk Makers			8.00	15.00
Tailors			7.00	11.00
Cutters			10.00	16.00
Tanners	1.00	1.25		
Curriers			9.00	12.00
Wire Workers and Weavers	1.00	1.50	14.00	15.00
Wagon and Carriage Makers	1.25	2.00		
Wagon and Carriage Painters	1.25	2.00		

CHICAGO WATER WORKS occupy more than three columns of the pamphlet in their description, of which we quote two of the most important paragraphs:

The cost of work will be $360,000. The same work would now cost $420,000.

The Works are now calculated to supply a population of 50,000 persons with 30 gallons of water each every 24 hours, which is equal to 1,500,000 gallons daily. The work is so planned as to be easily extended to meet the wants of 100,000 population by laying more pipe, and building more Reservoirs.

MANUFACTURES.—This branch of business is treated of specifically. We have space to quote little more than the names of the subjects.

CHICAGO LOCOMOTIVE COMPANY was formed last September with a capital stock of $150,000. They have built two locomotives, are completing the third, and expect, in a short time to "employ about 200 men at their works, and will be able to turn out two engines per month."

AMERICAN CAR CO. commenced business in the fall of 1852, have built about 700 cars of all kinds. The number of men employed at the works varies from 250 to 300. The value of finished work sent out from the factory up to the 1st January, 1854, is a little beyond $450,000.

UNION CAR WORKS were commenced in September, 1852. Last year they furnished 250 freight, 20 first class passenger, 10 second class passenger, and 10 baggage and post-office cars. Their machinery is driven by a 75 horse power steam engine. They have consumed in the past year about one and a half million feet of timber; 600 tons of wrought iron; 1000 tons of cast iron; 200 tons of coal, and employed 150 men.

Messrs. STONE & BOOMER, builders of bridges, turn-tables, &c., have had contracts the past year on 24 different roads in Illinois, Missouri and Wisconsin.

This company has a capital invested of $150,000, and employ, upon an average 300 men. They have used 2,000 tons of iron, and 5½ million feet of lumber. Bridges completed, 10,000 linear feet; bridges not completed, 27,000 linear feet. Turn-tables completed, 19; not completed, 12. Cubic yards of masonry — completed and not completed, 9,000 Gross earnings, $800,000.

The other subjects treated of in this article are, Illinois Stone and Lime Co.—Marble Works—Brick Yards—Coaches, Carriages and Wagons—Furniture—Chicago Oil mill—Soap and Candles—Machinery—Leather Manufacture—Stoves—Agricultural Implements—Break-Water and Depot Buildings of the Illinois Central R. R. — Michigan Southern & Rock Island R. R. Depot — Galena & Chicago Union R. R. Depot—Cook County Court House—Telegraphs—Omnibus Routes—Bridges, Sidewalks, &c.—Chicago Gas Co.—Health of Chicago—Plank Roads—Cook County Drainage Commission.

JOURNAL OF MANUFACTURES.

[From the Mining Magazine.]

The Cleveland Iron Company.

The Cleveland Iron Mining Company have expended about $120,000 for various purposes; buying a town site, (Marquette,) building piers, warehouses, furnaces, &c. Their furnace was destroyed by fire in December last, and now they abandon the manufacture of iron on Lake Superior, and sell all the ore they can get down. All the ore they deliver comes from the Jackson mine. With present facilities, it costs $5 to bring the ore from Marquette to Cleveland. When the S. Ste. Marie Canal, and the railroad from Lake Superior to the iron mines are finished, there will be no difficulty in furnishing Cleveland thousands of tons of ore per year, from the Lake Superior country. The Cleveland mine is about twelve miles, and the Jackson mine nine miles from the Marquette landing. The line of railroad is now partially graded for a plank road, and will be about sixteen miles long, to the Cleveland mine.

THE FOREST IRON COMPANY.

The Forest City Iron Company of Cleveland are pushing ahead their works as fast as the weather will permit. They will probably commence manufacturing about the first of April. They are a very energetic Company, and if the Renton process is what it is claimed to be, they will make a great deal of money out of it. This Company have contracted with the Cleveland Iron Mining Company for one thousand tons of ore delivered at Cleveland for $12 per ton, which they intend to mix with ore from their mine at Salineville, on the Cleveland and Pittsburg Railroad.

PRICES OF IRON.

The Secretary of the Treasury of Virginia, in reply to a resolution of the State Senate adopted a year ago, has reported the average price of iron for the last ten years preceding 1853, at markets of production abroad and at home, as follows:

Average of	merchantable bar iron at Liverpool	$31	78
"	merchantable bar iron at New York	56	52½
"	merchantable bar iron at Pittsburg	55	45
"	best refined iron in Liverpool	47	64½
"	best refined iron at N. York, 6 months credit	75	50
"	railroad iron in Wales	34	51
"	railroad iron in New York	42	20½
"	pig iron at Glasgow	13	21
"	pig iron at New York	26	76
"	pig iron at Pittsburg	26	57

THE IRON TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

Retrospect since 1806; and the increased proportion which Scotland bears to the whole.

FURNACES IN BLAST, AND PRODUCTION IN GREAT BRITAIN.

	Furnaces.	Production.
1806	216	243,851 tons.
1825	374	581,367
1840	402	1,396,400
1848	623	1,998,558
1852	655	2,701,000

OF WHICH THERE WERE, IN SCOTLAND—

	Furnaces in blast.	Production.	Price.
1806	18	22,840 tons	£7 0 0
1813	18	23,450	8 0 0
1823	22	30,500	4 15 0
1833	31	44,000	2 16 0
1843	62	248,300	2 5 0
1853	114	740,000	3 1 6

DURING THE LAST TEN YEARS—

	Furnaces in blast.	Production—tons.	Stock—tons.
1844	73	295,000	190,000
1845	94	400,000	230,000
1846	97	580,000	145,000
1847	89	540,000	90,000
1848	103	600,000	100,000
1849	113	692,000	195,000
1850	105	580,000	230,000
1851	114	770,000	360,000
1852	113	775,000	450,000
1853	114	740,000	270,000

PRODUCTION OF MALLEABLE IRON IN SCOTLAND.

1845	35,000 tons.	1849	80,000 tons.
1846	45,000	1850	80,000
1847	60,000	1851 and 2 each	90,000
1848	90,000	1853	100,000

AVERAGE PRICES OF PIG AND BAR IRON FOR THE LAST TWENTY YEARS.

	Pig Iron.	Bar Iron.		Pig Iron.	Bar Iron.
1834	£4 5 0	£6 18 6	1844	£2 14 9	£6 2 6
1835	4 10 0	6 10 0	1845	3 15 0	9 4 0
1836	6 13 0	10 12 0	1846	3 11 8	9 18 0
1837	4 0 0	9 12 6	1847	3 5 0	9 13 0
1838	4 0 0	9 5 0	1848	2 4 4	6 11 6
1839	4 10 0	9 14 6	1849	2 6 0	5 17 6
1840	3 15 0	8 7 6	1850	2 4 7	5 8 0
1841	3 0 0	7 4 0	1851	2 0 0	5 7 6
1842	2 10 0	5 19 0	1852	2 5 0	9 15 0
1843	2 5 0	5 0 0	1853	3 1 6	9 0 0

SHIPMENTS FROM SCOTLAND.

	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Total.
1845	54 671 tons.	183.228 tons	237,899 tons.
1846	119.100	257,841	376,941
1847	143.460	227 005	370,465
1848	162.151	227,833	387,984
1849	153.183	221,943	375,126
1850	134.576	190,083	324,659
1851	192.670	260,088	452,758
1852	224.097	199,971	424 068
1853	314,270	302,038	616,308

MANUFACTURE OF STEEL.

As the manufacture of iron into the various forms of which it is capable, for commercial and immediate use, is attracting especial attention throughout the United States, as the demand for this metal is increasing more rapidly than the gold and silver of the country, and as the iron mines of Missouri are peculiarly distinguished for the superior quality of cast-steel into which the ores may be easily converted; we are pleased to note the items in the following editorial from the *Cleveland* (Ohio) *Herald* of March 3d, and trust that the claims presented in behalf of this new process for making cast-steel may be fully investigated—and if found good may be applied in Missouri, that the cost of transportation of ores from the Iron Mountain region to Pittsburgh, for the purpose of steel manufacture, may be saved, that the cost of the metal may be reduced in price at our own doors, that the money for it may be paid into the hands of our own workmen, and that Missouri may derive both wealth and honor from the enterprise.

MANUFACTURE OF STEEL—IMPORTANT RESULTS.

Among the numerous advantages claimed for the new process of making wrought iron, one of prominent importance has lately been developed. The account of it is from undoubted authority, and is given as follows:

A manufacturer of steel lately purchased fifty tons of iron from the American Iron Company, Newark, N. J., made by the Renont process, to test its qualities as steel iron, which requires to be of the purest kind for that purpose.

The iron was taken from the bar, and by one simple process (only costing $30 per ton,) the iron was found susceptible, on account of its carbonaceous quality, to be capable of rapidly passing into steel of very superior texture, in the short space of four hours, saving the costly and tedious process of previous cementation. Thus, the daily products of each of the new furnaces can be converted into steel at a comparatively small cost, yielding 100 per cent. more profit than in iron.

The steel thus made has been put to various severe tests, made into razors, edge tools, &c., and is pronounced by competent judges to be the best of cast steel.

If these things are so, it will wonderfully reduce the cost of steel manufacture, and hold out new advantages to Cleveland enterprise, and especially to those who have lately embarked to reap the earliest advantages of the new mode of making iron from the Lake Superior ores. These have no rival in purity, and therefore the best results may be expected from them. What is to hinder Cleveland from becoming an Iron City?

JOURNAL OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT.

Pacific Railroad—Equity Shares.

The people of Missouri are strongly attached to the Pacific Railroad; and the fortunes of the one are united with those of the other.

Three points of opposition to the interests of Missouri, are now bearing upon this enterprise. First, the force that is applied to the Iowa route, and is already building a bridge across the Mississippi river at Rock Island. Second, the force that is applied to the Texas route, and that has already obtained a grant of land twenty miles in width from the Sabine to the Rio Grande. Third, the force *of inertia* — the indisposition of the people of Missouri to build the Pacific Railroad, through their own State, immediately, out of their own resources; which force of inertia may be called the resistance of the people of Missouri, against the Missouri route.

The forces applied in favor of the Iowa and Texas routes, react upon the interests of the Missouri route indirectly. The resistance of the people of Missouri against the Missouri route, acts directly to the ruin of their interests; and this last, is the main point of opposition bearing upon the Missouri Pacific Railroad.

How can this resisting force be overcome? Only by a stronger impelling force. How can the impelling force be applied? By the affirmative vote of the tax-payers of St. Louis, to take *pro rata* shares in driving on the work. The tax-payers in St. Louis should set an example to the farmers in the counties along the route of the road through Missouri. If the Railroad bonds were high and the price of breadstuffs low, the force called for would not be needed.

But Railroad bonds have fallen, the farmers' products risen, and money is wanted to prosecute the work. Shall the Railroad now be crushed, and the fortunes of the farmer thus impaired; or shall the farmers maintain their fortunes, by raising those of the road? The crisis has come, and it most be met by the people, or else misfortune and dishonor will quickly stare them in the face. Lands have risen in value at rapid rates with the fortune of the road, and they will fall as quickly with its failure.

The North Missouri and Iron Mountain Railroads are linked in destiny by St. Louis bonds with the Pacific Railroad, and therefore the failure of one will bring discredit on the others. These three Railroads have raised the value of real estate in St. Louis county at least 100 per cent. The failure of one of them would lower the value of the same real estate, far beyond the amount now necessary to be raised for its support.

A subscription of $1,200,000 is called for by the Pacific Railroad Company to be taken in *pro rata* stock by the property holders of St. Louis county. The plan on which it is to be raised is called "Taxation"—a term as unfortunate as untrue. The plan should be called by the popular and fair name it deserves—"EQUITY SHARES"—as, by the plan, certificates of stock are given for every payment made, and each property holder takes an equal amount of stock, with every other one in proportion to the value of his property.

In 1852, the population of St. Louis county, according to the census returns, was 121,853. The average amount therefore of the subscription of equity shares called for is less than ten dollars a piece for each inhabitant. And as only thirty per cent. of the same is to paid per year, the average amount of yearly payments on these equity shares, will therefore be only three dollars a year for each inhabitant.

On the hypothesis that the current value of the property in St. Louis city and county is $75,000,000, the man who owns $500 worth would have eight dollars of Railroad stocks as his share; and on the call of thirty per cent. per year, his yearly payment would be only two dollars and forty cents.

If the stock of the Company should be raised above par, these equity shares will be a profitable investment.

When, therefore, the proposition to raise $1,200,000 in St. Louis, on the plan of Equity Shares as above shown, is fairly examined, instead of being hard and repulsive, it is reasonable and easy; and the more thoroughly it is understood, the more popular it must necessarily become.

This system will also give an opportunity for each and every property holder in St. Louis to gratify an honorable pride, in the consciousness that he has done his duty towards this great national enterprise. Further, the spirit displayed by St. Louis in boldly sustaining and promoting this measure, will be felt and appreciat-

ed, and will cause a kindred spirit to be manifested by the counties along the line of the road, between Jefferson City and the United States territory; and still further, this accumulated spirit will be felt in Congress and throughout the Union; and, besides raising the character of Missouri in the eyes of the world, it will bring an irresistible moral force to bear upon the destinies of the Missouri Pacific Railroad, which will carry it through, in spite of contending and opposing factions, along the route indicated by the finger of Destiny — "the route which scientific explorations shall show combines, in the greatest degree, the advantages of genial and temperate climate, fertility of soil, cheapness of construction and accessibility at all seasons from all portions of the Union." This is the route for Missouri. This is the route for the Continental Railway; and this route may be secured by the bold spirit of the people of St. Louis.

Railroads in Arkansas.

The State of Arkansas bids fair to distance the State of Missouri in the Railroad race, although the latter had fairly started before the former had entered on the course.

The Missouri Pacific R. R. was commenced at St. Louis on the 4th of July, 1851. On the 10th of June, 1852, the Government of the United States granted lands for two Railroads in Missouri, the sum of the length of which was about 500 miles. During the following winter, the Railroad system of Missouri was determined: being 5 roads and about 1,200 miles; and on the 9th of December, 1852, the first locomotive west of the Mississippi river, with its train of passenger cars, started from St. Louis and passed over the Pacific Railroad to near Cheltenham, about five miles.

Thus Missouri had fairly started on the Railroad course in 1852.

Then Arkansas was held bound by politicians on the dirt road track.

On the 9th of February, 1853, before the State of Arkansas had commenced any practical operations on any road, the Government of the United States granted lands for one Railroad and two branches in that State, the sum of the length of which was about 600 miles. During the past year, public Railroad meetings and

Railroad conventions have been called throughout the State, at which speeches were made, information gained, enthusiasm aroused, and resolutions carried, by which the Railroad system of Arkansas was determined; being 7 roads, and about 1,200 miles; and though the State was overwhelmed by debt, the gallant spirit of her people is giving and gaining means to secure and speed the prosperity of their entire Railroad system. The longest main trunk road in the State is the Cairo and Fulton. The next in importance are its two branches—the eastern branch being known by different names, according to the terminus contended for on the Mississippi, opposite Memphis, and at Helena, but which for convenience we will call the Mississippi and Little Rock R. R.; the western branch being known as the Little Rock and Fort Smith R. R.; which main trunk and branches extend about 600 miles, and are driven on by the planters and counties along their respective routes, aided by the grant of Congress above alluded to. The fourth road is called the Mississippi, Ouachita and Red River R. R., and sustains a similar relation to South Arkansas, that the Hannibal and St. Joseph R. R. does to North Missouri, running nearly due west. Camden and Fulton are main points on this road. The fifth and sixth roads are branches of the M., O. & R. R. road — the one running south through Union county to the Louisiana line, the other north to Little Rock, forming the links of the South Arkansas portion of the Great Mississippi Valley R. R. from the Gulf of Mexico *via* the Iron Mountain of Missouri to the Falls of St. Anthony. The seventh road is called the Border Railroad, and is projected to connect with the Missouri Southwestern Railroad, near Springfield, and with the New Orleans, Opelousas & Great Western Railroad of Louisiana, near Shreveport. These four last mentioned roads are together about the same length as the first three, viz: 600 miles; the whole system of Railroads in Arkansas including as above stated about 1,200 miles. The first 600 miles are provided with grants of land by Congress. The last 600 miles is in a fair way of being provided for by similar grants; which, when done, and "'twere well it were done quickly," will furnish Arkansas with grants of land for 700 miles of Railroads more than Missouri has been, or, from present appearances, is likely to be furnished with, although Arkansas has already received grants of more land from Congress than Missouri has, and although the State of Missouri contains over 8,000,000 acres more

than the State of Arkansas, and although the Government of the United States still holds nearly 7,000,000 acres more in Missouri than in Arkansas.

Thus it is that Arkansas bids fair to distance Missouri in the Railroad race.

We here quote a few items from the Little Rock *True Democrat* showing the movement which has lately been made in Congress, and the practical operations along the line in favor of the Mississippi Ouachita and Red River Railroad, hoping in our next number to quote a letter from Senator R. W. JOHNSON, Author of the Cairo and Fulton Railroad grant and branches which reflects distinguished credit on the author and sustains us in the position we have here taken on the subject of Railroads in Arkansas.

In Senate, Feb. 27th, 1854.

On motion by Mr. JOHNSON, the Senate proceeded, as in committee of the whole, to consider the bill granting the right of way and making a grant of land to the State of Arkansas, to aid in the construction of a railroad from a point on the Mississippi, in the region of Gaines's Landing, via Camden, to the Texas boundary, near Fulton, in Arkansas, which had been reported from the committee on public lands with an amendment, as a substitute, in the usual form.

The amendment was agreed to; the bill was reported to the Senate as amended; the amendment was incurred in; the bill was ordered to be engrossed for a third reading; was read a third time, and passed.

We take the following extract from a letter addressed us by a friend in Camden, Feb. 21st, 1854:

"On last Wednesday Capt. Tighlman made his report as chief engineer of the M. O. & R. R. railroad. It is an able paper and I will send you a copy as soon as it is printed. He estimates the cost of the road at $1,986,000 00, or $12,773 00 per mile in complete running order. We have placed 40 miles under contract and will break dirt as soon as the necessary implements can be procured from Cincinnati, where we have sent an agent to purchase them. The road bed is to be ready for the iron by the 1st day of March, 1854.

Our road leaves the Mississippi river at Furguson's bluff, about 4½ miles above Gaines' Landing, crosses the Ouachita at Camden, and Red river about two miles below the cut-off on the lands of Judge Fort. Furguson gives us 60 acres, on the Mississippi, Maj. Bradley gives 143 acres in Camden, and Judge Fort gives 80 acres on Red river. If Col. Johnson gets our land bill through, and I think he will, our books are ordered to be closed, as we will in that event want no more stock."

LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

LITERARY NOTICES.

Among the many Internal Improvement, Scientific, Literary and other valuable publications we have received during the past month, we would call particular attention to a few from which we have quoted. The *American Railway Times*, published in Boston, and the *American Railroad Journal*, published in New York, from each of which we have this month quoted important leading articles, are filled with valuable data pertaining to the Internal Improvement interests of the whole country. Neither sectional nor party influences seem in the least to sway them with the slightest shade of bias or of prejudice. They seem committed neither against the North, South, East or West, but devoted to the welfare of the whole Union, and what may appear rather singular, particularly interested in the prosperity of the Mississippi valley. We know that these works are already liberally patronized in the West; and from their standard character, we trust that the enquiring sense of the people of the Mississippi valley, will rapidly increase this patronage, thereby promoting both their prosperity and intelligence.

The Southern Quarterly Review published in Charleston S. C. was noticed somewhat extensively in our last volume; but we must say that the April Number of this year, is superior in value and in liberality of sentiment to its late antecedent Numbers. See the article quoted from this work on the "Material Progress of the United States," and *ex uno disce omnes*. South Carolina stock is rising, and we hope the *Southern Quarterly Review*, may meet, throughout the whole region of the west, with the generous subscriptions, which a high toned, civilizing periodical deserves.

The Mining Magazine published in New York, we have always highly appreciated, and lately particularly noticed. We are happy to see that this periodical is now turning its attention somewhat directly to the Mining interests of Missouri. We hope to see it soon opening its pages still more widely to this cause, and to hear that it receives as well as gives satisfaction.

From the French of Madame De Staël.

German Philosophy.

Some persons have tried a long time to cast great disgrace on the word "Philosophy." This is the lot of all those words whose acceptation is very wide; they are the objects of the benedictions or of the maledictions of the human species, according as they are applied to happy or unhappy eras; but, in spite of the abuses and of the accidental favors of individuals and of nations, philosophy, liberty, religion never change in value. Man has cursed the sun, love and life; he has suffered, he has felt the touch of fire from these torches of nature; but should he therefore wish to extinguish them?

Every effort which tends to enslave our faculties is debasing; it is our duty to direct them toward the sublime end of existence, moral perfection; but it is not by the partial suicide of such or such a power of our being that we become capable of raising ourselves toward that end; in order to reach it, with all our means. we have not too many; and if heaven had granted to man more of genius, he should have so much the more of virtue.

Among the different branches of philosophy, that which has particularly occupied the attention of the Germans, is metaphysics. The objects which it embraces may be divided into three classes. The first relates to the mystery of creation, that is to say, to the infinity in all things; the second to the formation of ideas in the human spirit; and the third to the exercise of our faculties without tracing them back to their source.

The first of these studies, that which applies to the knowledge of the secret of the universe, has been cultivated among the Greeks as it is now among the Germans. One cannot deny but that such an inquiry, howsoever sublime it may be in its principle, only makes us feel our weakness at each step; and discouragement follows efforts which cannot reach a result. The use of the third class of metaphysical observations, that which is included in the cognisance of the acts of our judgment, cannot be disputed; but that use is limited to the circle of the experiences of every day life. The philosophical meditations of the second class, those which are directed upon the nature of our soul, and upon the origin of our ide-

as, appear to me altogether the most interesting. It is not probable that we can ever know the eternal truths which explain the existence of this world: the desire which we experience on this point is among the noblest thoughts which attract us toward another life; but it is not without cause that the faculty of self-examination has been given to us. Doubtless, it is to make use of this faculty by observing at once, the progress of our spirit, such as it is; yet in exalting itself to the highest degree, in seeking to know if that spirit acts spontaneously, or if it can think only when excited by exterior objects, we have more lights on the free will of man and consequently on the subjects of vice and virtue.

A crowd of moral and religious questions depend upon the way in which one considers the origin of the formation of our ideas. The difference of systems on this subject is the main point which distinguishes the German from the French philosophers. It is easy to conceive that, if the difference is at the source, it should manifest itself in all the results; it is therefore impossible to understand Germany, without noting the progress of philosophy, which, from the days of Leibnitz to our own, has continued exercising such supreme sway over the republic of letters.

There are two ways of viewing the metaphysics of the human understanding; the one in its theory, the other in its results. The examination of the theory demands a capacity beyond my own; but it is easy to observe the influence which this or that metaphysical opinion exercises upon the development of the mind and of the soul. The Gospel tells us: *by their works ye shall know them:* this maxim can also guide us among the different philosophies; for every thing which tends toward immortality is something else than a sophism. This life is of value only when it leads to the religious education of our heart, when it prepares us for a higher destiny, by the free choice of virtue on the earth. Metaphysics, social institutions, arts, sciences, all these should be appreciated next to the moral perfection of man; it is the touch stone which is given to the ignorant as well as to the wise. For if the knowledge of the means belongs only to the initiated, the results are brought home to the capacities of all the world.

[To be continued.]

CHRISTOPHER NORTH.

Messrs. Editors.

In the death of Professor Wilson, well may the fields of literature and the shrines of philosophy be shrouded in gloom, and well may the genius of Scotland weep over the loss of one of her most gifted spirits—one whose talent has exercised perhaps not less influence on the moral and social developments of modern times than upon its triumphs in literature. Those who have read Blackwood's Magazine, must know with what singular ability, and with what zeal and devotion it has maintained the supremacy of its own party principles for the last four and thirty years. It has not only triumphed in party polemics over the old and well established despotism of the Edinburgh Review, but has built up a solid and substantial character for refinement and taste, for sober judgment and sound criticism, which has never before been so well sustained in the whole range of periodical literature.

Professor Wilson—a true lover of nature—with poetic susceptibilities of the first order, with a warm heart and generous affections, with an ardent and enthusiastic temperament, when thrown in this political arena, soon manifested an originality which placed him among the best writers of the age. In his literary productions his knowledge of nature in all her amptitude and beauty, in all her loveliness and grandeur, enabled him so skillfully to strike the cords in the bosom of every right-feeling reader, as to make them responsive to his own. Warm hearted, with more kindness than austerity in his disposition, the cauterizing power of his criticism was exercised not in wantoness, but in suppressing some criminal obliquity, or some growing depravity in the moral tendencies of the political world around him.

As a poet, he wanted neither imagery nor inspiration, but his poetry found its best expression in his prose writings. His pen had the power of portraying scenes in lowly life, the success of which was mainly dependent upon their truth to nature, their unaffected simplicity, and the deep and overpowering pathos which characterized them. Like the Cottager's Saturday Night, of Burns, his pictures stand out in bold relief before us, and we can scarcely destroy the illusion that some shifting scenes, some substantial actors are not in transitu before us. The Lights and Shadows of

Scotish Life, The Trials of Margaret Lindsay, The Foresters, are gems of this kind, and gems of the first water. For force and clearness of style, for truth to nature in the secret workings of the deeper emotions of the heart, for purity and elevation of moral sentiment, and above all, for the power and influence which they exercise, they will forever stand as lasting monuments of the genius which planned them. These are however but a small portion of the writings on which the fame of Wilson reposes. It is not our purpose to bring these in review, but to introduce a few reflections which we sketched some twelve years ago, after reading the Miscellanies of this gifted author, first collected and published in Philadelphia, about the year 1842. This manuscript we found among our old papers which we were assorting the other day, with view of preserving some, and burning others. We are doubtful whether we ought to send it to you or the spirit of Caliph Omar. If you think it worthy of publication, please give it a place in your Journal. *A.*

The Critical and Miscellaneous Essays of Christopher North, [Professor Wilson.]

By Algeron.

This is the title of a work recently published embracing all the essays of the gifted editor of Blackwood's Magazine, from 1828 up to the present time. At the name of Christopher North, how many pleasing associations are awakened in our memories, when, in looking back through the dim vistas of the past, and through the hazy light tinged with the softened and mellowed hues of distance, we behold the shadowy forms of the blooming fields of heather and hawthorn, through which we have passed with one who was as "the voice of a solemn and sportive spirit," throwing around us a veil of silver frostwork, and investing the living forms of bird and bee, and flower, of mountain and low land, of cottage and hamlet, of lake and river, of torrent and mountain mist, with a beauty and poetry all their own.

Christopher North! why God bless the man who, in the loneliness of the wilderness, when we reclined among the odor breathing oranges of another clime, came like a spirit of paradise on purple wing spotted with gold, and communed with us in the deep and pensive musings not of melancholy, not of gloom, but of pure, chastened and sublimated adoration which consecrated nature and

nature's God in the secret chambers and spotless shrines of the temple within.

> "Mirrored in thought methinks to me
> The spectral past comes back again.
> Once more in retrospection's eye,
> As 'twere a second life restored,
> The perished and the past arise."

And we are again in the field, and over the moor, and on the mountain side, near some happy shieling, and hear the distant notes of the bag-pipe, the merry ringing voices of children, and the glad murmurings of the brook, all mingling as they swell and fall in softened cadence, coming like a spirit on the breeze; or like the voice of some Naiad from the snow-white foam which settles upon the dimpled waters of the gurgling stream. Amidst scenes like these we again see our companion in his sporting jacket—his tall and stately form, a noble presence—his radiant face richly glowing with benignity—his sportive smile telling of a heart all at ease with itself—his mischievous and quaint gravity, indicative of the fanciful associations in his own mind, of the incongruous with the symmetrical, the imaginative with the real — his quiet eye full of benevolence, and beaming with kindness and sympathy for all human kind — for none have known better how to shed gracefully a tear over the infirmities and the sorrows of life ; whilst the joyful spirit which has sported with the beautiful vageries of his own midnight and midsummer and winter dreams, has left some traces of playfulness on his furrowed cheek. With one thus formed, could you not consent to journey along through green lanes and hawthorn copses and yellow harvest fields, and purple heather the balance of your days, and

> "Muse on Nature with a poet's eye?"

But from these regions of the treasured past let us turn back to the subject of our thoughts—the book. Start not, gentle reader, we are not about to write a criticism, for in doing so we should be much more likely to write a rhapsody, and fly off to climes where the solitary bee is humming in the flower cup on some lonesome desert with its brown vesture of stunted grass, or where the lonely rose is blooming on some moss-covered and mouldering and forgotten ruin of temple or tower amidst the deep solitude of the arid and sandy plain. For our spirit likes not the sober russet garb or the precise habiliments of a cold and passionless carping about words and style, and plots and figures; for as the rudest dress may conceal a bosom in which there glows the proudest and noblest aspiration and the holiest affections, so words as a rude covering may conceal gems of feelings and emotions, which can find no expression in these symbolical representatives of conventional modes of speech.

The Pythoness was supposed to be inspired only when fully under the influence of some deadly drug, but however inspired, we

would defy the fairest Pythoness, who ever sent forth her decrees, to find a single *poppy blossom* in the beautiful and diversified fields over which we have just travelled with solemn, not grave, cheerful, not frivolous footsteps with Christopher North.

One who cannot relish the sweet poetry with which nature is everywhere mantled as with a veil of frostwork in these pages, has no soul responsive to the influence of poetical imagery, and justly deserves to be smothered and shrouded in the canvass of the amiable old gentleman who toils cheerfully along the waysides and broad surface of nature, cheering by his presence, and filling by his reminiscences our minds with solid lessons of instruction, not bound in the iron bands of an acetic philosophy, but in bright links of gold festooned and tied with fillets of roses.

The moral sentiments and the poetic beauties displayed in the essays before us, flow from such a deep source of social and religious feeling blended with all which can sublimate and purify the grosser affections, and their refining influences wind themselves so insensibly and silently around the heart, that criticism would be disarmed of its power, and yield a just tribute to the grace, the elegance and the artistic skill with which they have been presented before us.

Christopher North is one with whom no one would fall out by the wayside. There is so much kindliness of feeling, so much playfulness of humor, and simplicity of manner, so much that is chaste and beautiful, delicate and refined in the pencilings presented before us, that we feel more in the spirit of reveling among the brightest creations which he has thrown around us than of critically examining their defects or the want of conformity, in particulars where the whole is blended in such inimitable beauty.

We are not rhapsodists, we are not carried away by a morbid sentimentality, we are not dazzled by the multiplicity of beautiful images which are presented before us. In our ministrations we make no apotheosis to men or names, or distinctions, but we have an instinctive and abiding admiration, nay veneration, for genius wherever found, whether in the palace or hut, in the magnate or the peasant, or the shepherd on the hill side, who in his idylian song sends his invocations to the silver queen of night to reflect his thoughts to the now distant object of his love, whose gentle eyelids are closed by the rosy fingers of the dimple cheeked urchin who presides as chief magician with wand in hand over the shifting scenes which float in shadowy forms through her sweetest midnight visions.

But let us return, from wandering among the beautiful creations which the reading of these essays have inspired us, to the substance embraced in some of them.

There we have one of them fixed, as a child who has pinned some gilded moth with its velvet dotted wing to the wall, not that

we regard it exactly in the light of an insect of an hour, but as one whose vigorous and freshened breathings are eternal. We may examine, not analyse it strictly, not that its gaudiness dazzles us so as to preclude the possibility of seeing every lineament of beauty, every outline of grace. But "Christmas Dreams," what dost thou think of them, reader? What a crowd of beautiful associations rise up before us at the sound of this household word! Associations enbalmed among the choicest treasures of the memory of the past. Who can look back on the days of childhood and youth, and the periodical return of this gladsome holiday passed in the sportive gambols and frolics which greeted the smiling and fleeting hours as they floated along as joyously as light, without a feeling of pleasure mingled with sadness? The experience of one individual will differ materially from that of another, and materially different will be the images which crowd the individual recollections of everyone, when he threads the mazy and lengthened pathway through which he has passed from the earliest dawn of his spiritual existence to the period, when he is casting backwards his shadowy reminiscences.

Christmas, with its happy faces, with its boisterous or more quiet enjoyments, with its physical and spiritual pleasures, does not in the experience of every one present the same aspect. We are made to realize the beauty and force of these recollections in "Christmas Dreams," where the scenes which have been witnessed, and the associations connected with them, were from the experience of one whose form is bent with age, and whose hair is sprinkled by the frost of time; a period at which we delight to dwell on the thick coming and beautiful memories of the past. Who does not feel, in having these associations aroused from the slumber in which they have so long reposed, that memory has consecrated and enshrined them in a light more rosy and etherial than that which invested them as the sober realities of a fleeting existence? Beloved and happy faces are now smiling on our earliest manifestations of a gladness and joy which knew no cause but that others were around us and happy, and the kindling sympathy which dawned as a feeble light reflected back on the sources from whence it was borrowed, that which carried comfort and solace to the innermost soul. But the happy faces of those fond and aged parents where are they? On the slope of yonder hillside with its green churchyard, its snow-white tombstones, its mounds covered with the tangled rose and eglantine, beneath the shade of the mournful willow with its graceful solemn trailing on the breeze, sleep the forms of those who smiled upon our days of innocence. Quietly do they sleep; and yet methinks that in the quiet tranquility of this lonely place, where the weary spirit would fain rest from its toils, they do not sleep, but on angel wings have soared to other climes where tranquility and peace, and chastened and sublimated love shed their mild and rosy radiance over the dawning

brightness of an endless scene. Voices which made the welkin ring with boisterous mirth, or forms which enlivened the snow-drifted scene, or glided gracefully over the ice-bound lake, or mingled confusedly and tumultuously in blind man's buff or the romp, where are they? The voices of many are stilled, and hushed in the silence of the grave. But the forms of others, though changed they be, are seen around us toiling on in the pilgrimage of life—changed indeed are they — not so happy now as the lark when it brushes the dew from its wing, and mounts higher and higher to pierce the blue pavilions of the skies with the full melody of its grateful song, or when they wandered through the flowery fields of innocent delight, and knew not of the thorns that lurked beneath their verdant drapery. They cull but a few solitary flowers now, and saddened and sobered down are they, for amidst the thousand fountains of enjoyment which they tasted, there has been some trace of poison, some element of bitterness, which has transformed the innermost soul. The silver mesh work has been tarnished or darkened by the woof of sorrow, and it no longer shines in the glorious effulgence of the light which shone upon it when it first flashed back its heaven-born brightness; a change came over their spiritual manifestations as years advanced. In a probation, in the midst of a land smiling in beauty, and robed in magnificence, they wandered from flowery fields into darkened pathways, and now in toil and bitterness of spirit, find the brightest scenes of enjoyment overshadowed by sadness and gloom. Other voices and forms indeed have they, and magic could scarce effect transformations more wonderful than time has effected in a few brief years.

What strange mutations mark the course, and define in bold outlines the stages of human life! — A short and happy period of innocence — halcyon days all where the winged hours fly away in the dim past on golden wing as noiseless as the footsteps of the falling snow — another, still happier, if not in impulsive joy and fond delight, in thought and feeling—a season of passion when the full flowing heart sends out its gushing and sparkling waters, when young and blushing emotions bud forth, and sentiments unfolds their bright petals in the mellow dew and strong light of kindling affections—these feel their own power, and strengthen in the pride of their own consciousness, purified and sublimated by the innocence upon which they lean for support. Another stage, and all is not so bright and pure. The disposition made selfish from the very desire of enjoyment—morose from rough contact with the world; distrustful, where disappointments wither the fairest buds of promise, anxious, with restlessness to secure in the future what has been denied in the past—sad, where affliction follows in the footsteps of affliction, sorrowful, where one misfortune is too often a prelude to another—is it at all strange or wonderful that a trans-

formation should take place, that sad ravages should be made upon the purity and integrity of the life of the inner soul?

And thus it is until the last stage when man lives alone in memory, and robes in the beauty of poesy every hollowed remembrance of the past. Life with its bitterness and sorrows are forgotten, and life with its beautiful and sacred reminiscences fill the dreams which float through the reveries of the aged. In a delightful and spiritualized form, clothed in the charms of distance, which throw their blue mists over its earlier scenes, life is given up, and the wanderer drops into the tomb; to sleep! perhaps to dream again! and then wake up in a land where the spiritual forms and the charmed imagery of his brightest visions will be realized in the full fruition of eternal day.

But Christmas Dreams, by Christopher North, reader! what thinkest thou of them? We had intended saying something about their merits in a literary point of view: but then we never read them without lapsing into trains of thought like these, and we wander about through sunshine and shade, by twilight, by starlight and moonlight, over mountain and glen, over plains and moors, over field and flood, and never find a resting place in our wild imaginings, or starting point from which we can, Theseus like, in a direct line find our way by the charmed thread of an Ariadne through the labyrinth of bright and beautiful creations which surround us at every stage of our enchanted pathway. Reader, if you have never read these essays, you should soon avail yourself of this pleasure. But if you have, and can not take pleasure in them, and travel over the same fields with the playful and poetry-investing spirit of that good old companion with his cheerful face, his benignant soul, and his sporting jacket, we must say, that we indeed pity you, and you are not worthy of peering over the shadowy mists of Cruachan, or of resting in the shade near Windermere, and hearing the young buds of spring open with a noise in one of the many beautiful islets which are reflected from its bosom.

ERROR.

For "Illinois," in the third line of the note on page 7, read "Indiana."

For a critically accurate reprint of the Official Statistics of Public Lands, see Statement E, pages 44, 45, 46 and 47.

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ARTICLE I.

Duty on Railroad Iron.

Perhaps the most difficult problem in the science of public economy is the enactment of laws relating to industry or trade without affecting adversely the interests of some portion of the community. Indeed, we hold it to be impracticable for human wisdom to devise a measure for the encouragement of any one particular object connected with the general economy of a people without causing a greater or less degree of inconvenience, at least for a season, to those engaged in other pursuits.

Hence the utmost degree of caution should always be observed by the legislator when acting upon subjects relating to the industry, trade or finance of his constituents. It is his duty to examine the entire field of national industry, and be sure that the benefits proposed to one branch shall not be outweighed by injuries done to others.

Though not free tradists in the popular meaning of the term, we repeat what we have expressed upon other occasions, that legislation touching a tariff of duties, or the regulation of trade, is simply an act of expedience, to be governed by circumstances and well defined views of consequences. Therefore when the circumstances are not absolutely imperious, and the consequences of legislation are uncertain, we hold it to be the wiser policy to leave industry and commerce to regulate themselves. Keeping these premises in view, we shall proceed to inquire into the expediency of abolishing the duties on Iron to be used in the construction of railroads.

While it may be admitted that the circumstances in which many of the railroad companies are placed, imperiously demand they should be

relieved from the high prices of Iron, it is by no means certain that an act of Congress abolishing the duties would afford the relief so much needed. The high price of Iron at the present time is doubtless owing chiefly to the great and growing demand for railroad and other purposes. The producers in Great Britain are, as we believe, working nearly up to their capacity; and it would be absurd to suppose that they would not raise the price of their commodities in proportion to the reduction of duties; unless they should conclude that it was their better policy first to break down the American producers by selling at low prices for a time, and then occupy the market at their own rates without competition. In either case the benefits, if any, accruing to the railroad companies of this country would be but temporary; while the act of Congress abolishing duties on Iron would be the means of establishing a scale of prices which would be governed entirely by the demand, with no reference to the cost of producing. The Iron trade of Great Britain was built up and established by a system of protection, which was steadily continued until complete control of the principal Iron markets of the world had been obtained. Under the influence of this system an amount of capital has been brought to bear upon this branch of industry which defies all competition arising from new establishments in countries where the producers are unprotected against its tremendous power.

To show the power of the Iron masters in Great Britain, and the policy by which they control the Iron trade, we make the following extracts from a communication by Charles E. Smith, Esq., of Philadelphia, to the Secretary of the United States Treasury. The writer visited England, Scotland and Wales, in 1849, for the purpose of obtaining information relating to the Iron trade of those countries; and the document before us bears the marks of a close observing and well judging mind. After giving instances of fluctuations in the price of Iron without any apparent cause, except the will of the Iron masters, he proceeds to state that

"In conversation with an English iron-master, he said to me—and it was repeatedly confirmed by others subsequently—that they did not pretend nor expect to make a profit every year, but that they averaged their business for several years, and looked to the good years to reimburse them for the bad ones; that the practical result of the great fluctuations was to make the rich ones richer, and the poor ones poorer—in this way: The manufacturers with small capital are obliged to sell, at the market price, nearly as fast

as they make; and, when iron is low, they supply the greater part of the demand. The men with large capital keep their works always running, but, when iron goes below cost, stock up the greater part of their make, leaving the market to those who are obliged to sell; and, when iron comes up again at a remunerating price, they go into the market with a large stock, and sell out to a profit; while the smaller man, having sold as fast as he made, has no stock to sell at the advanced price, and frequently becomes a bankrupt before the high price comes. One establishment cleared one million pounds sterling in a single operation of this kind in 1844.

The capital employed in one of the large English works cannot be less than five millions of dollars; whereas the largest works in this country do not employ over $500,000, or one-tenth the capital used in England, and by far the greater number of our works have not more than one hundred thousand dollars capital, or one fiftieth the capital of large English works; so that, in comparison with their works, ours are all small, and are made to suffer in precisely the same way as the small makers in England, and, if they succeed in breaking down our works, the price of iron will be whatever they choose to ask for it, as we will be *obliged* to buy of them.

Another great facility they have arises from the low rate of interest, and the custom of the bankers to loan money on the manufactured iron, and thus enabling the maker to hold his iron for a long time, and not force it on to a weak or declining market; whereas here, we must first sell at any price we can get, in order to obtain the buyers' notes, on which to raise the money necessary to carry on the works.

Another advantage they have over us is in freights to America, in comparison with freights from the interior to the Atlantic cities. The articles we send to England occupy great space, in proportion to their value; those we receive, being often the same materials manufactured, occupy but little bulk: hence the returning vessels are always short of cargo, and will bring iron for any price, rather than buy ballast, to be thrown away on arrival here. But the freights and tolls on our canals and railroads are always the same, and will average higher than the freight from England."

In view of these facts, upon what ground can it be expected that a repeal of the tariff will reduce the price of rails? It is shown that the large establishments in Great Britain are able to hold their stocks for years, and that they actually do so whenever they deem it to be their interest to pursue such a course. A repeal of the duties on rails would put an end to the building of mills in the United States for making them; for with the history of the Iron trade in this country and in Great Britain before him no in-

dividual possessing ordinary prudence would risk his capital and labor in erecting works to manufacture railroad iron.

Under the operation of the compromise tariff, the Iron business had become almost completely broken down before the year 1842. The tariff of that year brought again into operation the furnaces which had been abandoned, and caused many more to be erected. Under that law the Iron business prospered, and was rapidly gaining strength, when it was again checked by the act of Congress of 1846. The great demand for Iron in Great Britain, in the years 1846 and 1847, for the construction of railroads in that country, prevented the operation of the law of 1846 from being seriously felt until about two years after its passage. But when the railroad mania began to subside in Great Britain, it was soon discovered that the Iron business of the United States was again in the power of the iron-masters of that country, and our furnaces were blown out and abandoned.

The following letter of Theo. Fenn, of Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, to the Secretary of the United States Treasury, may be regarded as containing a fair statement of the condition of the Iron trade in every part of this country from the year 1842 to 1850.

Harrisburg, November 12, 1849.

SIR: Since my return home from Washington I have been engaged in procuring some iron statistics, which I send you, and will be able to give you more, which I shall get from good sources, immediately.

Dauphin county.—In this county there were four furnaces and one forge previous to 1842, but one of which was making iron up to 1842. All the others were idle. That furnace made about 40 tons per week, or 2,000 tons a year.

In 1843, '44, '45, '46, and '47, these were all in blast, yielding at the rate of about 40 tons per week each, or upwards of 8,000 tons per year. The rolling mill here was also going, making about five tons of sheet-iron per day, or 1,500 tons a year. The forge was also going, producing about 1,000 tons of iron in bars per year.

In 1846 the new furnace of Porter's was in operation, and the capacities of some of the others increased. The product of that year in pig metal was increased, as is estimated, to upwards of twelve thousand tons. The rolling mill and forge are in blast as usual.

At this time all the furnaces but two are stopped; the forge is stopped, but the rolling mill is doing about half work.

Mifflin county.—In this county there are four furnaces. They were built previous to 1842, but there was but one in blast in that year, and that not the whole time. In 1843, '44, '45, '46, and '47, these were all in blast, yielding about 150 tons of metal weekly, or 6,500 tons a year. At the present time but one of these is in blast, and that one is to stop in a few days.

Venango and Clarion counties. — There were in these two counties five furnaces previous to 1842, all of which were idle. In 1846 the number of furnaces was increased to upwards of twenty; some of the largest capacity; and the amount of pig metal made estimated at *fifty thousand tons a year.* There are only five or six of these furnaces now in blast.

Mercer county.—There are 14 furnaces in this county, about one-half of which are dead, and the balance doing a little to keep their hands from starving. In 1842 there were but two in the county, both of which were idle. In 1846 all these furnaces were in full blast, producing about 30,000 tons of pig metal a year. Their product this year is estimated at 8,000 tons. The rolling mill at Greenville has ceased operations.

Yours, truly, THEO. FENN.

Hon. W. M. Meredith.

The import of pig, bar, and scrap iron, for the year ending June 30th, 1847, amounted to only $3,576,382; for the year ending June 30th, 1848, it amounted to $5,610,264, and for the year ending June 30th, 1852, it reached nearly $11,000,000; showing an increase of imports corresponding with the decline of the iron business at home. It scarcely admits of a doubt that, had the tariff of 1842 remained unchanged, the produce of iron in this country would have kept pace with the demand, and that, instead of having incurred a large amount of indebtedness to foreign capitalists for railroad iron, we should now be supplying the entire demand on better terms than it can be obtained in Great Britain.

But were it certain that, by abolishing the duties, the price of rails would be reduced thirty per cent., still but few of the railroad companies of this country would be in a better condition than they are at present. They have already carried more bonds to market than can be sold; and unless they resort to the common sense and safe method of building railroads by the application of their own money, instead of relying solely upon the sale of bonds to purchase iron, they will be compelled to suspend operations until a more propitious season.

Instead of repealing the law imposing a duty on railroad iron,

it is the true policy of the country to use the advantages offered by the present demand, to build up and establish the American Iron trade upon a solid and permanent foundation. It would be much easier to do this than to find the means of purchasing foreign made iron. For if wisely managed, these two branches of industry—the building of railroads and the making of iron — would impart assistance and strength to each other; and both being sustained by the natural resources and labor of our own country, there would be no danger that either would fail for the want of means.

Though none more than we desire to see the accomplishment of a complete system of railways in every part of the country, yet we deprecate the spirit of impatience that would urge the work on regardless of consequences, crushing in its mad career the iron business, a branch of industry of more vital importance to a state of civilization than all the advantages that can be expected from any one mode of public improvement.

The difficulty of obtaining means to carry on the numerous railroad projects already commenced affords strong evidence that the country has undertaken more work than can be accomplished, in the time proposed, with the means that can be safely drawn from other pursuits; and, according to our observation, whenever any branch of business reaches that point, it cannot be sustained and successfully carried on by a resort to legislative expedients. In such cases no act of the legislature can overrule the laws of industry and commerce. It may check their operations for a time; but every expedient designed to sustain a branch of business already overdone serves but to accummulate and make more certain the evil consequences involved in the violation of natural laws.

In view of the subject in all its relations, we have regarded the high price of iron as one of the most fortunate consequences of the spirit of public improvement now prevailing in this country. We have looked to this state of things as a means of building up the Iron trade of the United States, and of freeing it from the control of the iron-masters of Great Britain; as a means of creating a market in our mineral districts for a vast volume of agricultural and horticultural products, which would never find a market elsewhere; an,d finally, as a means of making our inexhaustible deposits of iron ore and coal supply the place of the precious metals, and become in time the very basis and most reliable support of all public improvements.

All this we firmly believe will be realized in time, if the General Government should pursue a wise policy in respect to the tariff on foreign iron. Already extraordinary results have been developed in this direction. The production of iron has greatly increased within the last two years; and if nothing should occur to check its progress in the next two years, the competition between the producers of this country and those of Great Britain will begin to operate in favor of the consumers. No branch of industry ever introduced into this country has grown with more rapidity, or attained a greater degree of importance in the same length of time, than has the manufacture of rails within the last eighteen months. We find in several of our most reliable exchanges a list of sixteen iron establishments which it is said will turn out 160,000 tons of rails during the current year; this will be sufficient to lay about 1,600 miles of road, and we know that there are other establishments not enumerated in the list.* The capital invested in these

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* List of 16 mills and their estimated production for the year 1854 furnished by a correspondent of the Philadelphia Bulletin.

Montour Iron Works, Danville, Pennsylvania	tons 18,000	Trenton I. W., Trenton, N. J.	15,000
Rough & Ready, Danv., Pa	4,000	Massachusetts I. W. Boston, Mas	15,000
Lackawanna, Scranton, Pa.	16,000	Mt. Savage I. W. Mt. Savage, Md	12,000
Phoenix I. W., Phoenixv., Pa.	20,000	Richmond Mill, Richmond, Va.	5,000
Safe Harbor, Safe Harbor, Pa.	15,000	Washington Rolling Mill, Wheeling, Va	5,000
Great Western, Brady's Bend, Pa	12,000	Crescent Works, Wheeling, Va.	5,000
New Works, Pittsburg, Pa.	5,000	New Mills, Portsmouth, Ohio	5,000
Pottsville I. W., Pottsville, Pa.	3,000		
Cambria I. W., Cambria, Pa	5,000	Total	160,000

Represented Items in the production of 160,000 tons of Railroad Iron.

Pig Iron required	1 1-3 ton per ton of rails	tons 113,333
Coal used	5 1-4 tons per ton of rails	840,000
Iron Ore	3 1-2 tons per ton of rails	560,000
Limestone	1 1-8 ton per ton of rails	214,333
Total number of tons raw material		1,826,666

Labor employed from the Materials in the ground to the finished rail in market.

In mining, transporting and delivering coals, p. ton of coal at $1,92	$1,612,800
In mining, transporting and delivering iron ore, p. ton of ore at $1,60,	896,000
In mining, transporting and delivering limestone p. ton at 65 cents.	138,666
At and about the furnace p. ton of Pig Iron at $3,00	663,466
At and about the Mill, per ton of rails at $12	1,920,000
Carrying Rails to market, say average $2	320,000
Number of men employed, 18,500—yearly earnings, $300 per head	$5,550,932
Population supported, 5 times 18,500, equal to	92,5000
Breadstuffs consumed per annum, 92,500 persons, at $50 per head.	4,625,000
Capital employed in rail iron Works now erected	10,000,000

Other interests as below:

Owners of Coal Lands—royalty—valued on a ton af rails at $1,84	$294,000
Coal Operator—his average profit valued on a ton of rails at 95 cents.	152,000
Owners of Ore Lands—royalty—valued on a ton of rails at $1,41.	225,600

establishments is estimated at $10,000,000, and their estimated produce for this year—valued at $75 per ton—amounts to $12,000,000. Viewed as an object of national wealth, it will be perceived that much the greater portion of this sum is a clear gain to the people of this country. For by reference to the statement to which we refer, it will be seen that but a very small proportion of the elements constituting this value of $12,000,000, could have been exchanged for foreign iron at any price. By the operation of these mills, iron ore, coal and limestone, articles of scarcely any appreciable value in a commercial point of view, are converted into useful, substantial wealth, imparting vigor and stability to every branch of industry, and preventing the exportation of the precious metals in exchange for the products of similar materials abroad.

But why should we multiply facts and arguments when we have reason to apprehend that a majority in Congress have already resolved in their hearts to abolish the duties on iron to be used in the construction of railroads? But few public men, as we are constrained to believe, aspire to be statesmen. Empiricism in legislation seems to have usurped the place of statesmanship, and our best protection against an unwise, and perhaps a ruinous course of legislation is the conflicting interests and prejudices of different parts of the country. We can imagine how hard it is for an American legislator to rise entirely above these influences, and take a clear, disinterested view of any subject relating to the industry and commerce of the nation; and therefore we admonish the friends of this measure that they are treading upon dangerous ground. If it be their odject to check the production of American iron, and secure to the subjects of Great Britain a monopoly of the iron trade at their own prices, for an indefinite period, they will doubtless succeed in their design, in case their measure becomes a law. But if it be their purpose to give encouragement to the building of railroads, and profitable employment to American industry, we can scarcely imagine a scheme, tho' devised by an enemy, which would be more certain to depress those objects, and result in injury instead of benefit.

Owners of Limestone Quarries—quarry cave—valued on a ton of rails at 13 cents	20,800
Capitalists—use of money, interest,&c. valued on a ton of rails at $1,50	240,000
Transportation Companies—clear profits over and above working expenses, valued on a ton of rails at $3,78	604,800
Storekeepers and others, for merchandize, oil, brass, fire-brick, &c., valued on a ton of rails at $1,39	382,400
Total	$1,919,60

ARTICLE II.

[From the Magazine of Art.]

Manufacture of Gutta Percha.

The following remarks from an English periodical, upon one of the most useful articles recently discovered, and applied to an immense variety of purposes, will, we doubt not, be read with interest:—

We live in eventful times; and every day brings to light some new discovery in science and the arts, or some special application of hitherto known but unappreciated agents. Here, a flash of the electric spark conveys intelligence from point to point, over mountains and through the very sea itself; there, the discovery of a new law in nature robs romance of half its charms, and explains, in part, the dreamy superstitions of our ancestors; everywhere the mind of man is active and awake, and ready to receive new impressions. Indeed, one of the most remarkable characteristics of the age in which we live is an inquiring spirit, which, in some cases, amounts almost to blameable credulity. Within the memory of living men, steam and gaslight, electricity and galvanism, photography and mesmerism, were unknown agencies to the great mass of the people; and it is only within the last ten years that the substance called "Gutta Percha" has become a useful appliance in domestic life.

We purpose to record briefly the history and uses of this curious vegetable gum. Let us glance at the

GUTTA PERCHA IN ITS NATIVE WOODS.

Like photography and the new planet, this product seems to have had more than one discoverers—Dr. Montgomerie, assistant surgeon to the Presidency at Singapore, and Mr. Thomas Lobb, botanical agent to the Messrs. Veitch, the well-known florists of Exeter, each claiming the discovery as his own, though each was miles distant from, and acting independently of, the other. Priority of discovery, however, seems by common assent to be given to the first-named gentleman. The home of the gutta percha tree is in the islands of the Indian Archipelago, where there is reason to believe that it is indigenous. In the year 1824, Dr. Montgomerie was out in the woods at Singapore, when he observed, in the hands of a *parang*, or native woodsman, a hatchet, the handle of which was composed of a strange substance. "I questioned the workman, in whose possession I found it," says the Doctor, in his account to the Society of Arts, "and heard that the material of which it was formed could be moulded into any form by dipping it into hot water, when it became as plastic as clay, and when cold regaining its original hardness and rigidity." Subsequent inquiry led to the fact that gutta percha, like caoutchouc, or india-rubber,

is the sap of a species of saponaceous forest tree, thousands of which abound in the dense forests of the Malay peninsula.

Of course, the Doctor was not long in disseminating his knowledge of so remarkable a substance. He speedily procured specimens of the tree and its product in various states of preparation, and forwarded them to the Society of Arts in London. As soon as it arrived in this country, its peculiar properties were rigidly inquired into; and, its value in manufactures being speedily ascertained, the gold medal of the Society was awarded to the Doctor as the first discoverer.

This substance derives its name, not from the scientific world—though it is curious that the first half of the term is the Latin word for *drop*, whence it might be concluded that gutta percha meant the *droppings* of the percha tree — but from the native Malays. It is pronounced *pertsha*, not *perka*.

Dr. Montgomerie had several opportunities of becoming acquainted with the method by which the gutta or sap was obtained from the tree. The fruit yields a "concrete and edible oil, which is used by the natives with their food;" while the sap circulates between the bark and wood of the tree in vessels whose course is sufficiently well marked by black longitudinal marks. At first the natives were in the habit, when they required a supply, of felling the tree; but experience soon taught them that the milky juice might be collected by cutting notches here and there in the trunk, and that in this way the life of the tree might be saved for future "tappings." The sap coagulates in a few minutes after it is collected; but before the crude gum becomes quite hard, it is kneaded by hand into compact oblong masses from seven to twelve inches in length, by four or five in thickness. This part of the work is mostly performed by women. The blocks made up for exportation, however, are not always of uniform size and appearance, the fancy of the rude barbarian sometimes giving them strange forms —such as that of a bird with red berries for eyes, images of ships, quadrupeds, or the "human face divine." The gum is always sold by weight—a fact which is taken advantage of by the crafty savage, who, in humble imitation of more clever adulterators, sometimes introduces a stone or a heavy substance into the interior of the mass. As it would entail a serious loss of time on the merchant if he were to cut each block at the port of shipment, it often happens that, on the substance reaching this country, it is found to conceal stones or rubbish; and then woe to the purse and the cutting-knives of the purchasers! Besides this, however, the block often contains a vast amount of unavailable material in the shape of bark, dirt, leaves, and so on, which become accidentally incorporated with the gum.

From the examination of the specimen sent over by Dr. Montgomerie, it became apparent that a large trade in the article would speedily take place; and in a few months the jungles of the Johore

Archipelago, in scene of the first gatherings, were explored by Englishmen, Chinese, and Malays, in search of the gum-exuding tree. Their efforts were actively seconded by the natives; and in a short time it was discovered that the supply, of which some doubts had at first been entertained, was almost inexhaustible. It is singular, remarks an acute observer, that, although the Portuguese, Dutch, and English, had, one or other of them, retained possession of the islands on which the trees grow for more than nine centuries and a half, it should have remained for an Englishman to discover their valuable properties at so late a date as 1843.

The rise of this new trade gave a great impulse to the activity of the Oriental islanders; and the value of the gum becoming fully known, eager search was made from island to island, and among the forests of the Archipelago; and large profits were made by the sarmingongs, or chiefs, of the aboriginal tribes, who exacted from the gum hunters a royalty on all they found. Sufficient profit, however, was left, even after this deduction, to stimulate the cupidity of the natives, and the port of Singapore was speedily supplied with the article in great quantities. At present, above two millions of pounds are exported into this country in the many-shaped masses alluded to. We will now inquire into

THE NATURE AND APPLICATIONS OF GUTTA PERCHA.

At the present time the chief supplies of the article come from Singapore, though vast numbers of the tree—the wood of which, being of a soft spongy nature, is of little commercial value — are found in Borneo, Java, Sumatra, and Penang. In its nature it differs from indian-rubber chiefly in its superior density and toughness. Though both substances are somewhat alike in appearance and manner of application, the absence of oxygen in indian-rubber may account for its greater elasticity. The chemical constituents of gutta percha, as ascertained by Dr. Maclaghan, are—

Carbon	86·36
Hydrogen	12·15
Oxygen	1·49
	100

While those of india-rubber are—

Carbon	87·2
Hydrogen	12·8
	100

Exposed to a temperature of 248 degrees, gutta percha melts; and in cooling remains in a semi-fluid adhesive state — partially decomposed, in fact; and when set on fire it burns very readily, with a dense smoke. At a temperature of about 200 degrees it becomes soft and ductile, though without stickiness, and can be put into the shape it is intended to retain when cool. Its specific is ·975, that of water being 1·000. It is a repellant of, and completely unaffected by, any description of *cold* water; and of heat

and electricity it is a non-conductor. It is proof against alkalies and acids, being only affected by sulphuric or nitric acid in a highly concentrated state; while the most powerful ascetic, hydrofluoric, or muriatic acids, or chlorine, have no effect whatever on its structure or capabilities. Of its power to resist frost, sufficient proof exists in the number of boot and shoe-soles manufactured from it; and of its acoustic properties we shall have more to say.

The capabilities of the resin were tasted as soon as the specimen forwarded by Dr. Montgomerie reached London, and a kind of historical interest is attached to this sample from the fact that, from this humble beginning, a large branch of manufacture has arisen which now employs some thousands of workmen. Several ingenious tests were applied to the specimens, and it was soon proved, by Messrs. Whishaw and Hancock, that it was applicable to a vast number of purposes; and from it were made tubing, lathe bands, and impressions of medals—all of which were shown at the late Exhibition in Hyde-park. If further proofs of its value were necessary, we need only refer to the experiments made by these gentlemen; one of which consisted in the softening a mass of the material in hot water, pressing it round a soda-water bottle, hardening it in cold water, pressing it out into a thin sheet, and then, by the application of heat, again rolling up the gum into the form at first assumed. From the patents taken out by Messrs. Hancock, arose the manufacturing and trading firm known as the "Gutta Percha Company."

We will now examine

THE MANUFACTURE OF GUTTA PERCHA.

Perhaps few of our readers think what a vast amount of capital and labour are constantly working hand in hand in the byways of London. We pass through the main streets, and are acquainted with the general complexion of the thoroughfares right and left, but, unless our business leads us directly into the vortex of industry, we bestow little thought upon aught that comes not immediately before our eyes. A few steps out of the main line in one direction take us into the midst of the tan-yards of Bermondsey; a hundred yards or so from Finsbury-square, and we are in a new world among the weavers of rich silken and velvet stuffs; through a street or two from that same square, and we are deafened by the clang of hammers and the din of labour; in every direction, did we care to search, we should find factories where hundreds of men earn the "daily bread" for which, it is to be hoped, they nightly pray. So it is with the spot in which the Gutta Percha Company have their factory. A few yards out of the City-road, near the canal basin, and we find ourselves in a strange neighbourhood, where coals, and lime, and culm, and building materials, are being constantly unloaded from queer-shaped vessels, and were numerous manufactures are being carried on. In this "Wharf-road" are the works we are now visiting.

We enter a modest-looking doorway beside a pair of folding gates, on which the words "Gutta Percha Company" are painted, and we become speedily aware that a branch of manufacture of which we hitherto knew next to nothing is being carried on within. Sight and smell—a smell something like a tanyard, something like old cheese, something like half-dried clothes in a laundry, something like gas-tar—an odour we soon become accustomed to—informs us that we may expect to witness a new sight. And we are not mistaken; for the manufacture of gutta percha has necessitated the invention and use of novel machines, strange processes, and odd-looking tools. Every fresh application of the material—whether it be the production of merely useful or highly ornamental designs, the imitation of the grain of wood, the close texture of papier-maché, on the endeavour to make this Eastern gum a substitute for leather — has necessitated the invention of tools not hitherto thought of, and the use of appliances beyond the range of the ordinary workman. As soon as we are fairly in the yard of the works, we look around and read the history of the manufacture all about us. Here are piled great heaps of the raw material, in all imaginable strange shapes; there, and on every side, are buildings erected especially for the processes to be carried on inside—store rooms, engine-houses, workshops, a quay for unshipping the gum, *cum multis aliis*.

Let us enter the building nearest us, and, by the help of Mr. Statham, the intelligent manager, and "our own artist," we will endeavour to explain what we witness. The blocks of gutta percha required for use are taken from this heap to the cutting machine. This is a large solid vertical dise of iron, making about two hundred revolutions per minute. The raw material is cut into thin slices by several sharp knives, like those in a carpenter's plane. The block of gutta percha, being brought to the edge of a sloping iron table, is rapidly caught up by the knives, and literally reduced to shavings, which fall into a receptacle beneath. The cutting apparatus, as well as the other machines on the premises, is put in motion through the agency of two fifty-horse power engines, the boilers of which are constructed on a novel plan, by which eleven pounds of water are evaporated to one pound of fuel. The furnaces, moreover, consume their own smoke.

Reduced to shavings, the gutta percha must next be perfectly cleansed of its impurities. This is no easy matter, but patience and hot water are certain at last to effect the desired object. The shavings are thrown into great tanks and boiled, and then, the greater part of the rubbish having fallen to the bottom, the gum is collected into one mass and carried to what is called the "teaser"—a sort of large circular box, containing a cylinder or drum, covered entirely with rows of bent, jagged teeth. Revolving at a great rate (about 800 turns in a minute), the "teaser" quickly tears the mass into shreds and tatters, which fall into a vat of

water beneath. The true gutta percha, being lighter than water, floats on the surface, while the impurities sink to the bottom; and thus, being perfectly cleansed of all impurities, is ready, crisp and new-looking, for the succeeding process. Another boiling brings the material again into a soft, compact mass, which is "kneaded" "masticated" in heated iron cylinders, in which revolving drums so completely turn and twist the pasty gum as to bring it into a perfectly homogeneous state, without a particle of water in its composition.

In this state the gutta percha may be considered ready for manufacture, and the subsequent processes are employed either in making it up in sheets or tubes. If required for after use in the production of ornamental articles, the kneaded mass is carried to the rolling machine. This apparatus is similar to that employed in paper mills, the gutta percha passing on an endless band through steel cylinders placed at the requisite distances apart, according to the thickness of the sheet required. By a simple adjustment of the cylinders, it can be made to produce with equal ease the stoutest driving-band or the thinnest tissue so much used and appreciated by surgeons as a substitute for oiled silk, hydropathic bandages, etc. During the passage of the sheet through the machine, it has become sufficiently cooled to form a solid consistent body; or if the substance of the sheet required be too thick to allow it to cool in the ordinary manner, it is blown upon as it passes on to the drum at the end by a series of fans, like those in a winnowing machine. When the material is required to be in strips, a very ingenious construction of knives takes the sheet just before quitting the machine, and cuts it into longitudinal bands of the required width, which are, as before, carried forward on to the drum.

In the production of tubing, a different but highly ingenious and simple process takes place. "A mass of the softened material is forced by a piston through a steel cylinder, terminating in a mould, which consists of a solid circular piece of metal set within an iron tube, the space between the two being the thickness required;"—in fact, this is a very curious modification of the wire-drawing process. The gutta percha, after having left the mould in a tabular form, is received into a canal of water about fifty feet in length. The office of the water is to prevent the tube from contracting or collapsing; the pressure being equal both within and without, it is thus preserved in the required shape, and is afterwards dried and hardened by exposure to the air. As the tube leaves the water it is wound off at the other end, and the "feeding cylinder" is so contrived that no pause occurs in the transmission of the material. By this means a pipe of upwards of 1,000 feet in length has been manufactured in one piece.

From the sheeting and tubing thus prepared an infinite variety of articles are composed. The numerous workshops are crowded

with men and boys engaged in various operations. In the cutting and stamping room the paper-cutting machine, invented by Mr. Wilson, is brought into extensive operation, moulds of every description being used to produce the different articles; and so great is the demand for new combinations of gutta percha, that scarcely a week passes without some addition to the stock of curious contrivances — some unique pattern, some elegant design, or some useful appliance. As we said before, the novelty of the manufacture has introduced a vast number of curious looking tools, etc.; but it may be affirmed that the principal and indispensable necessaries are, boiling water, the knife, the mould, the press, and the plastic hand of the workman. The operation of the cutting machine is as instantaneous as it is curious. If shoe-soles are required, the band is applied to the machine, and a dozen pieces of one shape is the result; if line or string is wanted, a series of sharp knives press down on the material, and the necessary quantity is ready for the workman's hand to roll and polish; and so of every article in which a distinct outline is necessary.

The next process is the moulding or stamping. The sheets are cut into pieces, and each piece is warmed sufficiently to take the impress of the die. These moulds, many of which display great ingenuity and originality, are all made on the premises, and constitute a distinct branch of the company's operations. We come now to speak of

THE USES OF GUTTA PERCHA.

The most important use to which this material has been applied is undoubtedly that of tubing. The history of water-carrying is the history of civilization. First the spring at which the wayfarer stooped to drink; then the rude passage formed of trunks of trees laid end to end; then the aqueduct, carried o'er hill and valley to imperial Rome; then the gay, splashing fountain, with its retinue of water-carriers; lastly, the leaden pipe, which does its office stealthily beneath the earth, and bears the stream from distant country places into our very homes. But even the reign of the leaden pipe is doomed, and must give way in turn to gutta percha. Even while we write, the system of supply for large cities is undergoing change, and medical men are beginning to perceive that the conveyance of water in leaden pipes is hurtful to the health. — "Many serious and alarming disorders," says Dr. Thomas Smith, "such as mania, epilepsy, sudden death, nervous affections, paralysis, consumption, hydrycephalus, heart disease, etc., owe their origin, in some instances, their intractable character in others, to the gradual and continuous infinitesimal doses of lead, copper, etc., introduced into the system through the channel of our daily drink." For all sanitary purposes the gutta percha tubing is admirably adapted, as it possesses strength, purity, and is entirely unaffected by frost. It is accordingly extensively used for pump-barrels, ship-pumps, fuel-pipes, for locomotive engines; and, be-

ing unaffected by acids, is available for bleaching and all chemical purposes. It may be united to a metal pipe without difficulty; is unhurt by gas or chlorine; and, as for strength, it has been found to resist a pressure of 200 lbs. to the square inch. At New York a gutta percha pipe of 1,000 feet in length, and of but two and a half inches calibre, has been laid down for conveying the Croton water from Blackwell's Island. Its durability has been proved by the fact of its having lain in damp ground quite uninjured for two years, and its ductility is seen in the fact that it may be bent, twisted, or coiled in all directions without injury. A curious and valuable use has been made of the gutta percha tube in illuminating buildings. One end being attached to a gas-pipe, and the rest coiled round a cylinder, the light may be carried about by hand to any part of the building, the tube being coiled and uncoiled at pleasure.

Formed into carboys, flasks, funnels, bowls, scoops for ladles, inings for cisterns, battery-cells, buckets, troughs, or syphons, he Indian gum answers its purpose equally well, and is found far more strong and eeonomical than any material hitherto tried.

In acoustics the gutta percha tubing has been found of admirable service; and whether employed as an ear-trumpet for the deaf; as a speaking tube in a railway carriage; a domestic telegraph by which messages may be conveyed from one part of the house to another, and whereby the lowest whisper is distinctly heard; a speaking apparatus from the mouth to the lowest depths of mines; or as an appliance whereby a minister may address the deaf among his congregation—it has been found equally certain and unfailing. In various churches and chapels it has been applied to the latter purpose, being conveyed under the flooring from the pulpit to the most distant pews; and in more than one instance it has been attached to the doorway of the medical man, and carried up to his bedside, so that he is enabled to communicate with the messenger of his patients as readily as if he attended them in person in the cold night air.

For shoe and boot-soles it has been extensively applied, and numerous testimonials speak of its efficacy in resisting damp, and protecting the feet from cold and frost in all situations. As a substitute or addition to leather for these purposes it is undoubtedly of great and important use.

We would willingly speak at length of its services in telegraphic communication; but when we say, as is already known to all ou readers, that through its agency the British Channel has been spanned, and Paris, and Berlin, and Brussels have been brought within speaking distance of London; when by a flash of lightning the submarine telegraph conveys intelligence from shore to shore, we think we have sufficiently testified to its usefulness and importance in this respect.

As a decorative and fine art material, gutta percha has been brought into use in an immense variety of ways. In gutta percha are formed all manner of domestic appliances and ornaments—trays of all sorts and sizes; vases, wash-stands, and plates; bouquet-holders, statuettes, brackets, jugs, mugs, inkstands, and clothes-lines; flower-pots and stands, paper-weights, medallions, cornices, doors, mouldings, picture and glass frames, drinking cups, fishing nets, and portmanteaus; skates, policemen's batons, and boats; oil-cans, washing basins, and whips; stethoscopes, splints for dislocations, and curtain-rings; stuffing for horses' feet, mill-bands, and stop-cocks; cutting boards, cabmen's hats, and traces; life preservers, bottling boots, and seals; powder-flasks, air-guns, and book-covers; sponge-bags, galvanic batteries, and bandages for broken limbs. For all these, and thousands of other purposes, it has been found of eminent utility, and we think enough has been said to commend it to the reader's attention. It may be mentioned, in conclusion, that many imitations and falsifications of the company's patent have been attempted, to obviate which the names and offices of the patentees are now stamped on all articles issuing from their establishment. We could go on, but space forbids. To the stranger in London, and the seeker after novelty in manufactures, an hour or two cannot be more profitably spent than in visiting the works of the Gutta Percha Company. Much that is useful, much that is curious, and much that is beautiful, awaits his inspection.

ARTICLE III.

[From the Peoria Democratic Press.]

Wild and Cultivated Fruits, etc., in Oregon.

OREGON CITY, O. T., March, 20, 1854.

"Are there any wild fruits in Oregon?" is an inquiry often made in the States, and a particular answer may be acceptable to the curious on such subjects. There are no walnut, butter-nut, hickory, pecan, mulberry, persimmon, nor chesnut trees in the territory, excepting a few in the nursery gardens, and these have not yet commenced bearing. They sell at $2 a piece, six inche to three feet in length. Hazel bushes are abundant among all the undergrowth in every direction. In some localities they attain a very large size for bushes of this kind, and the nuts are larger than those in the western states, though smaller than filberts, but better. The Indians collect large quantities of them for winter stores. Chincopins, sweet little nuts (like small round chestnuts,)

are found in the Calapooiah mountains and a few other places. Cherries, same as the "Michigan choke cherry," grow in many places. The young trees are used as stocks for grafting, and it is believed that they do well for this purpose, yet scientific fruit growers would probably be slow to recommend the practice. No wild plums nor grapes have been seen north of the Umpqua valley. The plums found in and south of that valley have considerable resemblance to peaches, in taste at least. Crab-apple trees are met with in nearly every thicket and almost invariably form part of the undergrowth of low and bottom lands. In favorable situations the trees grow to the ordinary size of cultivated apple-trees. The blossoms are very fragrant and pretty. Fruit scarcely equals in size the large red haws of your State — shape, regular, oblong, narrowing to the eye, thin skin, glossy with a slight blush of red and yellow next the sun, core small, flesh solid and strongly, though very pleasantly, acid. They grow in bunches almost like black haws. They are esteemed by many persons for making preserves. In the way of berries nature has dealt more liberally with Oregon. Whortleberries grow in many places — some on bushes eight to twelve inches and others eight to twelve feet in height. The first produce abundantly a very sweet fruit about the size of common red currants, and the larger bushes bear much larger berries, some red and others deep blue or black. The red ones are the favorites. Cranberry swamps are found along the coast and in Washington territory, some of them many acres in size. Indians gather and bring the berries to market. Raspberries and black or dewberries are numerous in many places. The former produce remarkably well, and the berry is very large and finely flavored. The latter is a running vine which also bears well, an excellent fruit. Several persons from California were here the past winter gathering large numbers of raspberry roots to ship to and sell in that state. Strawberries grow all over the country, but as you go south they appear more plenty, larger in size and of superior flavor. Near the bases of the mountains in the upper part of the Willamette valley it is not uncommon to find them equal in size to the largest of Hovey's seedling. A berry called the "Oregon grape," but scarcely resembling in any particular its namesake of the states, is frequently met with in rough places. The bushes grow from two to six feet high, often with several branches, and are evergreen; leaves unequally pinnate, leaflets hard, glossy, serrated and very pointed; blossoms yellow; fruit average size of Illinois wild grapes, and very acid, too much so to be of material account for any purpose. The gooseberry found here is very like its namesake still seen in some of the old gardens in the eastern states, and not inferior to it in any respect. We have also a variety of the black currant, which is more admired on account of its beautiful red blossom (which sometimes appear early as the middle of February,) than for the berry which is

sweet but has a flavor unpleasant to most persons. Then we have service-berries, large and excellent; sallad, salmon and thimble-berries, of not much account, except that the sallad berry is a favorite food of swine. The white oaks also generally produce "a good mast" for that quadruped, which is of considerable importance.

Another question, and one in which there is deservedly a deeper interest manifested, is, "Do fruits cultivated in the states succeed well in Oregon?" The experiments and experience in horticulture have been amply sufficient to give a most decisive and satisfactory reply in the affirmative. There is no room for even the "shadow of a doubt" on this subject. Apple trees of nearly all the superior and most approved varieties have already been introduced here, and many of them produced fruit last year, and some have been in bearing several years. The same may be said of pears, quinces, peaches, nectarines, plums, apricots, cherries and almonds. A number of persons are engaged in the nursery business, one or two on a pretty large scale. But they have been unable fully to supply the demand. This, however, may to some degree be attributed to the orders for fruit trees sent from California; but the Oregon settlers manifest the right spirit in this matter—they seem to be fully sensible of the importance of making an early start in growing fruit, and, judging from their selections from the many different varieties, they generally appear to understand what they are about. The prices range from seventy-five cents to $2 a piece for trees of one or two years growth, from the bud or graft. They grow finely, and commence bearing remarkably soon; and their early maturity does not, as might be supposed, interfere with their growth. It is a common remark that "greater bearers were never seen," which is owing to the favorable character of the climate — frosts seldom injure the blossoms. The fruit is finely flavored, beautiful in form, and generally larger than it grows in the states. To give you the size of apples, plums, &c., grown here last year would scarcely fail to provoke a credulous smile. Only a single case, too well attested to admit of doubt, will, therefore, be named. General McCarver (who resides near this place,) last autumn sent to the California Horticultural Society's fair, a number of pears which he took from the tree four or five weeks before maturity in order to reach their destination in time. As a matter of course, he plucked the largest. They lacked 2 oz. of weighing two pounds a piece. He took the premium at the fair, and the society voted him a handsome medal. When the pears which remained were taken from the tree they had attained the size of those sent away, showing pretty conclusively that if the first had remained, they would have exceeded the weight of two pounds a piece. He says they were of the variety known as the "pound pear." The same gentleman sent a load of twenty-five or thirty bushels of seedling apples to

Oregon City, last fall. They were purchased for the California market at $15 per bushel (a year previous they commanded only $5 per bushel). Seedling peaches, last season, sold at $5 a bushel. Fine ones, of the cultivated varieties, ten cents to twenty-five cents a piece. Pears 37½ cents to 75 c. each. It is not probable that these prices will be paid this year.

Grapes are also successfully cultivated. Cuttings are brought in quantities from California; and the price of California grapes has usually been from 25 c. to 50 c. per pound. They far exceed the Catawba and Isabella grapes in every respect.

It is unnecessary to particularize other fruits usually cultivated in gardens. It will suffice to say, in growth and production they meet the expectations of the most sanguine cultivator.

Unquestionably, Oregon is destined to be "a great country for fruit." From the summits of some of the buttes along the Willamette valley you may now behold hundreds of farms checkered with the white and pink blossoms of promise. In a few years the number will be increased tenfold. What a scene, with its background of heavy, dark, fir forests of timber, perpetually snow-capped mountains and roaring water-falls. There is beauty in your wide, extended prairies, and, doubtless, much can truthfully be said in their praise; but they afford not that glorious variety of scenery found on this long neglected

"Land of the forest and the rock,
Of dark blue lake and mighty river,
Of mountains reared on high to mock
The storm's career and lightning's shock;
My own green land for ever."

Z.

ARTICLE IV.

Valley of the Amazon: Its Commerce, &c.

The opening of Japan, and the river Amazon to the commerce of the world, by means peaceable in their nature, should such be the result of the expeditions set on foot by the late administration, will constitute one of the brightest chapters of American history since the days of the revolution. The Japan expedition was an imposing enterprise, fitted out and carried on at great expense to the nation; but while the attention of the civilized world was attracted by its movements, two officers of the American Navy, Lieut. Herndon and Lieut. Gibbon, with no armed escort, and with no better means of transport than hired mules, crossed the

Cordilleras, and, separating on the eastern side, the former embarked on the river Ucayali, a tributary of the Amazon, and after a voyage of many months in open boats reached the Atlantic. So little notice was taken of this expedition that but very few even of our own people were aware of its existence until the enterprise was accomplished. And yet we are persuaded that it will be the means of opening, at an early day, the broadest and in many respects the richest valley of the whole earth to the settlement of civilized men, and to the commerce of the world.

This expedition awakened a more lively interest on the part of the Peruvian and Bolivian governments, in respect to the commerce of the Atlantic, and startled the selfish and jealous mind of the Brazilian emperor, who hastened to neutralize and counteract any movement on the part of Peru and Bolivia towards opening their ports to foreign commerce. These republics, however, have had the sagacity to repudiate the policy to which he aimed to commit them, and their ports on the tributaries of the Amazon have been declared open to the commerce of the world.

The adoption of this measure on the part of these governments secures to all nations, having treaties of commerce with them, the right to enter the Amazon, and pass through the dominions of Brazil into their respective territories. This we regard as a clear principle of national law recognized by the best authorities. We trust, therefore, if Brazil should persist in refusing her consent to other nations to navigate the Amazon, that the United States will cease to respect an unjust claim set up by her in violation of national law, and if necessary, send a sufficient force to protect our commerce with the people owning the upper Amazon and its tributaries.

RESUMÉ.

By Lieut. Herndon.

My report would be incomplete were I to fail to bring to the notice of the department circumstances concerning the free navigation of the river that have occurred since my return from the valley of the Amazon.

These circumstances are clearly the result of my mission, which appears to have opened the eyes of the nations who dwell upon the banks of the Amazon, and to have stirred into vigorous action interests which have hitherto lain dormant. They have an import-

ant and direct bearing upon the question, whether the United States may or may not enter into commercial relations, by the way of the Amazon, with the Spanish American republics; who own the headwaters of that noble stream.

The government of the United States had scarcely begun to entertain the idea of sending a commission to explore the valley of the Amazon, with a view to ascertain what benefits might accrue to its citizens by the establishment of commercial relations with the people who dwell upon its banks, when the fact became known to Brazil. That government, thus awakened to its own (more apparent, however, than real) interests, immediately cast about for means to secure for itself any advantages that might arise from a monopoly of the trade of the river.

She accordingly dispatched to Lima an able envoy, Duarte da Ponte Ribeiro, with instructions to make a treaty with Peru concerning the navigation of the Amazon; and, this done, to proceed to Bolivia for the same purpose, while the Brazilian Resident Minister in Bolivia, Miguel Maria Lisboa, was sent to the republics of Ecuador, Venezuela, and New Granada, so as to secure for Brazil the navigation of all the confluents of the Amazon belonging to Spanish South America.

Da Ponte succeeded in making with Peru a treaty highly advantageous to his own government. It is styled "A treaty of fluvial commerce and navigation, and of boundary," and has the following articles relating to steamboat navigation:

"*Article* 1. The republic of Peru, and his Majesty, the Emperor of Brazil, desiring to encourage, respectively, the navigation of the river Amazon and its confluents by steamboat, which, by ensuring the exportation of the immense products of those vast regions, may contribute to increase the number of the inhabitants and civilize the savage tribes, agree, that the merchandise, produce, and craft, passing from Peru to Brazil, or from Brazil to Peru, across the frontier of both States, shall be exempt from all duty, imposts, or sale duty, (alcabala,) whatsoever, to which the same products are not subject in the territory where produced, to which they shall be wholly assimilated.

Article 2. The high contracting parties, being aware of the great expense attending the establishment of steam navigation, and that it will not yield a profit during the first years to the shareholders of the company destined to navigate the Amazon from its source to its banks ("litoral") in Peru, which should belong exclusively to the respective States, agree to give to the first company which shall be formed a sum of money, during five years, which shall not be less than $20,000 annually for each of the high contracting parties, either of whom may increase the said amount, if it suits its particular interests, without the other party being thereby obliged to contribute in the same ratio.

The conditions to which the shareholders are to be subject, in consideration of the advantages to be conceded to them, shall be declared in separate articles.

The other conterminous States which, adopting the same principles, may desire to take part in the enterprise upon the same conditions, shall likewise contribute a certain pecuniary quota to it."

The 5th clause of the 1st of the separate articles alluded to above declares that the company to be formed shall arrange with *both* governments touching the respective points on the river Amazon, or Maranon, to which the steamboats shall navigate, &c., &c.

Article 3d, of the separate articles, declares that the agents of the Imperial Government, *with those of the government of Peru*, duly authorized, shall establish the enterprise ("contrataran la empresa) upon the terms indicated in these articles.

The persons undertaking the enterprise shall agree with the said agents touching the mode and place in which they shall receive the stipulated sums.

Both governments, in their respective territories, shall take care of the observance of the conditions agreed upon.

Immediately upon the conclusion of the treaty, and before the exchange of ratifications, Brazil gives a practical illustration of the wisdom of a remark attributed to her wily minister in Lima, which was probably intended only for Peruvian ears, and directed rather at another government than his own, viz: "that it was not expedient for a weak nation to treat with one more powerful than itself; because, in the interpretation of treaties, the stronger party always enforced its own construction, and the weaker, as invariably, went to the wall."

By a decree of the Emperor, of date August 30th, 1852, Brazil gives to Ireneo Evangelista de Souza, one of her own citizens, the exclusive privilege of the navigation of the Amazon for thirty years, and arranges with him touching the respective points on the Amazon, or Maranon, to which the steamers shall navigate.

In the mean time, however, a new minister, Don Manuel Tirado, [more awake to the interests of his country than the framer of the treaty,] takes charge of the portfolio of foreign affairs of Peru. He thus writes to the Brazilian minister of foreign affairs:

"MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, LIMA,
January 20, 1853.

SIR: I have the honor, by direction of my government, to inform your Excellency that it has understood, by a communication from Don Evarista Gomez Sanchez, our Consul General, charged with the exchange of ratifications of the treaty celebrated in this capital on the 23d of October, 1851, with the Senor Da Ponte Ribeiro, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of his

Majesty, the Emperor, that said exchange probably took place in Rio Janeiro, on the ——— .

Said commissioner informs me, at the same time, that the government of his Majesty has conceded a privilege in favor of Don Juan [Ireneo'] Evangelista the Souza for the establishment of navigation by steam of the river Amazon, under the stipulations of a contract celebrated by authority of his Majesty, approved in his decree of the 30th of August of the preceding year.

Said privilege defines the course of the lines which are to be established; the first to run from the city of Belen, capital of the province of Para, to the town at the mouth of the Rio Negro, capital of the province of Amazonas; and the second to continue on from this last city to Nauta, a town situated on the Peruvian banks.

The establishment of said navigation by steam upon the Amazon is a point agreed upon in article 2d of the treaty; as also the annual subsidy of $20,000 by each one of the governments for the space of five years in favor of the company that will undertake the enterprise; conditions to which this government is bound, and which it is desirous of fulfilling.

This government, then, being aware of the contract celebrated with the above mentioned Don Juan ['Ireneo'] Evangelista de Souza, it is fit that I should say to your Excellency that, as according to article 3d of the separate articles of the treaty, the contracts for navigation should be made by agents duly authorized by both governments [the government of his Majesty having initiated the formation of an enterprise to this effect, and having also reference to that part of the course of the river belonging to Peru, moved, without doubt, by the desire of hastening the attainment of the great objects to which this navigation is destined,] this government cannot but hope that that of your Excellency will deign to inform the company organized in Rio Janeiro that, as respects the Peruvian shores, the conditions of navigation, its course and extent, and the obligations relative to Peru, cannot be considered as existing or efficacious, except for the five years agreed upon by the treaty, and by the celebration of an agreement or contract with the same government whence these obligations may arise.

There being no evidence up to this time that our Consul General, Commissioner Don Evarista Gomez Sanchez, has been consulted in the agreement; and it being believed that, at the date of it, he was not in Rio Janeiro, your Excellency will see how proper it is to make to you this anticipation in furtherance of the realization of that internal navigation which, for so long a time, has yearned for a decided and efficacious protection on the part of the States who share these fruitful waters, destined to open to the world new objects of speculation and of traffic, and to give to commerce and civilization one more field for their efforts.

In the mean time, as, according to the advices of the same Consul General, the first trip of the new steamers is to be made in the

month of May next, this government—for the purpose of avoiding difficulties in their running, and to contribute to the important end which they are destined to accomplish, until the opportunity occurs to arrange the conditions obligatory in that navigation by a free contract on its part, as I have already expressed to your Excellency, and according to the mutual obligations contracted in the treaty—has thought proper to direct, as a facility spontaneously conceded in the mean time to the navigation, that the authorities who exercise jurisdiction on those shores should permit the running of the steamers on the corresponding waters of Peru, and assign them points where they may touch, until the establishment of an arrangement to which this navigation is to be definitively subjected, by means of a contract which this government is bound to make for five years according to stipulation, and which it hopes your Excellency will deign to cause to be offered for its free acceptance by the associates of the company created under the authority of his Majesty, the Emperor.

With sentiments, &c., &c.

JOSE MANUEL TIRADO.

To his Excellency, the MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS OF BRAZIL."

But whilst Tirado is penning this courtly caveat in Lima, Gomez Sanchez, in Rio Janeiro, is giving his assent to the De Souza contract, extending it in all its force to Peru, and entering into an agreement with De Souza by which he gives him the right of exploring the Ucayali, and other rivers of the west, from Rio, besides other privileges, which, if acceded to by the Peruvian government, would give Brazil all power over the navigation of those rivers, as well as over that of the main stream.

Fortunately for the interests of commerce in general, and for the more speedy development of the great resources that lie hid in the valley of the Amazon, Tirado practically disavows the action of Gomez Sanchez, and obtains from the Council of State of Peru its assent [subject, of course, to the approval of the legislative power] to the appropriation of $200,000 towards the exploration by steamboat of the Peruvian tributaries of the Amazon, and the colonization and settlement of their fertile lands. He has already appropriated $75,000 of this sum for the purchase of two small steamers, which are now in the course of construction in the United States, and which will be delivered at Loreto [the frontier port of Peru on the Amazon] by the 1st of January, 1854.

The enlightened and patriotic President of Peru, Don Jose Rufino Echenique, approving and adopting the policy of Tirado, goes further, and issues a decree relative to the opening and settlement of the Amazon. It is dated April 5, 1853. I give a translation of some of its more important articles:

Article 1. In accordance with the treaty concluded with the empire of Brazil, on the 23d of October, 1851, navigation, trade,

and commerce, on the part of Brazilian vessels and subjects, is allowed upon the waters of the Amazon, in all that part of its banks belonging to Peru as far as Nauta, at the mouth of the Ucayali.

Article 2. The subjects and citizens of other nations which have treaties with Peru, by virtue of which they may enjoy the rights of those of the most favored nation, or to whom those same rights, as regards commerce and navigation, in conformity with said treaties, may be communicable, shall, in case of obtaining entrance into the waters of the Amazon, enjoy, upon the Peruvian shores, the rights conceded to the vessels and subjects of Brazil by the foregoing article.

Article 3. To carry into effect the two preceding articles, and, in agreement with them, the ports of Nauta and Loreto are declared open to foreign commerce.

Article 4. In conformity to the law of November 20, 1852, no import or export duties shall be paid in said free ports on merchandise or produce which may be introduced or taken thence. This, however does not extend do dues merely municipal, which the people themselves may impose for objects of local utility.

Article 10. The Governor General [resident in Loreto] is empowered to concede gratuitously to all, whether Peruvians or foreigners, who wish to establish themselves in those countries under the national rule and in subordination to the laws and authorities, titles of possession to land [in conformity with the law of November 21, 1832,] from two to forty *fanegadas*, in proportion to the means and ability of cultivation, and number of individuals who may constitute the family of those who shall establish themselves. He will give an account of these concessions, so that the government may confirm them, and expedite titles of proprietorship.

Article 11. The governors of the districts may make concessions of lands from two to four fanegadas, informing the Governor General, who shall also inform the government.

Article 12. Larger grants of lands for founding colonies, towns, and estates, will be made by the government gratuitously, but by means of agreements with contractors, in which the conditions of the colonization shall be established.

Article 13. All concession of lands made to individuals or families, in conformity with articles 10 and 11, shall be void, if, at the end of eighteen months, no attempt has been made to cultivate or to build upon them.

Article 15. Over and above the reward which the law of the 17th of November, 1849, concedes to vessels or contractors who may introduce colonists, the government binds itself to give to those who may come with destination to the lands or valleys of the Amazon and its tributaries in Peru, a passage to the place, im-

plements of husbandry, and seeds, all gratuitous; for which purpose sufficient deposits shall be placed in the hands of the Governor-General at Loreto.

Article 16. A national vessel shall be detailed for the service of carrying those who, whether citizens-born or emigrant foreigners, may desire to establish themselves in those countries; and, after being landed at Huanchaco, the Prefect of Libertad shall make provision for the transportation of the immigrants to said places, by the route of the Huallaga.

Article 17. In conformity with the law of November 21, 1832, the lands cultivated and houses built shall be exempt from all contributions, and shall enjoy the other privileges which the laws concede to the owners of uncleared lands.

Article 18. The new population shall pay no contribution for the space of twenty years; nor shall the Catholics pay obventional or parochial dues, the cures that shall be there established being at the expense of the State. The new population shall also be exempt from the impost on stamped paper, being permitted to use common paper for their petitions and contracts.

Article 21. It shall be permitted in the new settlements that the individuals who form them may unite themselves in municipal corporations, under the presidency of the governors of the respective districts or territories, for the purpose of making laws relative to the local administration, without giving the governors created by this decree any power to interfere with rights, of whatever nature, in respect to individual liberty; they only taking care for the preservation of public order, and of the national authority, in conformity with the laws.

Article 22. Because this territory is a new establishment, and has no judicial authorities, it shall be permitted, for the administration of justice, that the new settlers shall name their own judges, electing them in the form most convenient, until Congress shall legislate in relation to the administration of justice and in municipal affairs.

The other articles divide the territory proposed to be settled into districts; four on the Amazon, from Loreto upwards to Nauta; two on the Ucayali, from the mouth to Sarayacu; and four on the Huallaga, from the mouth to Tingo Maria — all under the direction of a governor general established at Loreto. The *Intendente general* of the missions of Pozuzu, which are near the sources of the Pachitea, a confluent of the Ucayali, is directed to observe the conditions of the decree; while the governors of the Upper Mission, which is all the country on both sides of the Amazon above the mouth of the Huallaga, are directed to exercise their authority as before, in dependence on the prefecture of Amazonas, until special decrees shall be issued for their guidance and government.

Article 25 appropriates the funds necessary to open roads from Cerro Pasco to Pozuzu, and from Pozuzu to Mayro, at the head of navigation on the Pachitea, under the direction of the intendente of Pozuzu. So that my old chatty acquaintance of Huanuco, whom Col. Lucar designated as the best animal magnetizer in the world, has at last carried his point and accomplished his long-cherished purpose. If the country between Cerro Pasco and Mayro be such as he described it, this certainly will be the best route of communication between Lima and the Atlantic; but earnest and enthusiastic men see no obstacles to their favorite schemes; and I must doubt if this road would, according to his account, run for the greater part of its distance over a pampa or plain.

The portions of land granted by this decree are not sufficiently large, a fanegada being only about two acres; but I have no doubt that a proper representation to the Peruvian government would set this matter right, and very much increase the size of the grants. No man would be willing to undergo the exposure, privations, and hardships of a dwelling in the wilderness whilst he was clearing his lands, unless with the prospect of having a large and valuable estate, if not available for himself, at least for his children. The government should make legal titles to each adult male settler of a tract of land at least a mile square.

The decree says nothing in relation to toleration of creeds in religion. The President could not grant toleration, for it would be contrary to the constitution of Peru; but he knows as well as I do that there will be very little trouble in that country from that cause. The country will afford room for every shape of opinion and every form of worship; and men will be too busy there for years to come to find leisure for quarrelling on such trifling yet mischievous subjects. The decree refers in several places particularly to Catholics, as if in contradistinction to, and tacit acknowledgment of, a Protestant interest.

In his letter to the council of state, asking its concurrence in the appropriation by the executive of the $200,000 towards the establishment of steam navigation and exploration on the Ucayali and Huallaga rivers, and the colonization and settlement of the lands upon their banks, Senor Tirado thus expresses himself:

"Amongst the most urgent national obligations is that of procuring the civilization of the savage tribes who dwell on the borders of the Ucayali and in other parts of Eastern Peru; and also that which binds the republic to lay the foundations of the prosperity which may be expected from commerce and communication with the rest of the world, by means of the navigation of the Amazon and its confluents.

"The Spanish government, and subsequently the independent, on account of divers circumstances, has applied but feeble means o the accomplishment of the first of these objects. The wants and

spirit of the age now call for the full and immediate application of the care and resources of the nation towards these places, subject to the territorial sovereignty of Peru, which will soon see an influx of foreign merchandise, and in which, probably, an abundant emigration, and an extensive traffic, will create towns of important commerce and a field for the efforts of civilization and industry."

These are patriotic and statesmanlike views, which give ample testimony to the truth of Ijurra's estimate of the character of this wise minister, contained in a recent letter to me. He says:

"The minister Tirado is the man for the age in Peru. In nothing does he resemble his predecessors or his cotemporaries. His travels in the United States, and in some parts of Europe, have not been barren of results. Endowed with an intellect that comprehends all at a glance, and full of knowledge, he is entirely worthy of the appellation of a true statesman. At the same time, possessed of a heart which is full of enthusiasm and patriotism, he desires to introduce into my unhappy country the institutions, laws, and manners, which have rendered happy other countries that I have known, and which, doubtless, will be adaptable to the necessities of our people, and conducive to the rapid progress of the republic.

"He will commence by calling over industrious men of all professions and creeds, of all ages, nations, and conditions, with the sole condition that they shall be moral and laborious; he will endow them with those fertile lands, with which you are familiar, to the eastward of the Andes; he will supply them with tools, seeds, and domestic animals, and will give them the necessary guarantees that they may live together like brothers, with absolute liberty of action and of conscience."

All this, and more, has Tirado accomplished in the recent decree of the Peruvian government. I think that I can also trace Ijurra's hand in this action of the government, and fancy that it is the result of many conversations we had on this subject during our long voyage He is now in high favor with the government, and has been sent to Loreto in quality of sub-prefect and military commandant, [second in authority in the new province.] He writes me that he shall establish himself at Caballo-cocha, where he will labor with zeal and vigor in the great cause, till death overtakes him. Long and late may it be in coming to my faithful companion.

Fortunately for her own interests, the advancement of commerce and the progress of civilization, Bolivia refused to listen to the Brazilian envoy; she knew that, even with the assistance of Brazil, she was not able to undertake with any prospect of success the navigation of the rivers, and the development of the resources of her great territory. She preferred to entrust this enterprise to the energy and competition of the great commercial nations of the

world, rather than take it on her own shoulders by a useless exclusiveness; and she therefore issued a decree on the 27th of January, 1853, declaring several ports on each and all of her rivers which communicate with the Atlantic, whether by the La Plata or the Amazon, free and open to the commerce of the world.

This was a very important document; it put the Northern republics on their guard, and excited a spirit of emulution in their governments. I have heard nothing of the result of Lisboa's mission; but I know that some of the most distinguished citizens of those republics have declared themselves favorable to the project of opening their rivers and ports to foreign trade, and are disposed to urge their respective governments, if necessary, to demand of Brazil the right of way to the ocean.

Independently of the action of the Spanish American republics concerning the free navigation of their tributaries of the Amazon, we have a special treaty with Peru, negotiated by J. Randolph Clay, our present minister, in July, 1851, which entitles us, under the present circumstances, to the navigation of the Peruvian Amazon. The second article of that treaty declares that, "The two high-contracting parties hereby bind and engage themselves not to grant any favor, privilege, or immunity whatever, in matters of commerce and navigation, to other nations, which shall not be also immediately extended to the citizens of the other contracting party, who shall enjoy the same gratuitously, or on giving a compensation as nearly as possible of proportionate value and effect, to be adjusted by mutual agreement, if the concession shall have been conditional."

The concession to Brazil is conditional, but we shall find no difficulty in "giving a compensation as nearly as possible of proportionate value and effect;" that is a matter for Peru to decide, and there is little doubt but that she will consider the presence of our people and our vessels in her country, and upon her streams, as being of proportionate value.

It will be thus seen that our citizens have a legal right, by express grant and decree, to trade upon the interior waters of Peru and Bolivia, and it is presumed that Brazil will not attempt to dispute the now well-settled doctrine, that no nation holding the mouth of a river has a right to bar the way to market of a nation holding higher up, or to prevent that nation's trade and intercourse with whom she will, by a great highway common to both.

But Brazil has effectually closed the Amazon by her De Souza contract; she gives him the exclusive privilege for thirty years, with a bonus of $80,000 per annum, besides guaranteeing to him the $20,000 of Peru. This of course defies competition, though I very much doubt if the contract will endure; the Brazilians are so little acquainted with river steam navigation that De Souza will run his boats at great cost; the conditions of the contract are also stringent and oppressive, and under such circumstances, even *with* the bonus of $100,000, I doubt

if the trade of the river for several years to come will support the six steamers that he contracts to keep on the line.

Brazil, too, will soon see that in this matter she is standing in her own light. The efforts of this company, though partly supported by the government, will make little beneficial impression upon so vast a country, in comparison with that which would be made by the active competition of the commercial nations of the world.

Were she to adopt a liberal instead of an exclusive policy, throw open the Amazon to foreign commerce and competition, invite settlement upon its banks, and encourage emigration by liberal grants of lands, and efficient protection to person and property, backed as she is by such natural advantages, imagination could scarcely follow her giant strides towards wealth and greatness.

She, together with the five SpanishAmerican republics above named, owns in the valley of the Amazon more than two millions of square miles of land, intersected in every direction by many thousand miles of what might be called canal navigation. As a general rule, large ships may sail thousands of miles to the foot of the falls of the gigantic rivers of this country; and in Brazil particularly, a few hundred miles of artificial canal would open to the steamboat, and render available, thousands of miles more.

This land is of unrivalled fertility; on account of its geographical situation and topographical and geological formation, it produces nearly everything essential to the comfort and well-being of man. On the top and eastern slope of the Andes lie hid unimaginable quantities of silver, iron, coal, copper, and quicksilver, waiting but the application of science and the hand of industry for their development. The successful working of the quicksilver mines in Huancavelica would add several millions of silver to the annual product of Cerro Pasco alone. Many of the streams that dash from the summits of the Cordilleras wash gold from the mountain-side, and deposit it in the hollows and gulches as they pass. Barley, quinua, and potatoes, best grown in a cold, with wheat, rye, maize, clover, and tobacco, products of a temperate region, deck the mountain-side, and beautify the valley; while immense herds of sheep, llamas, alpacas, and vicunas feed upon those elevated plains, and yield wool of the finest and longest staple.

Descending towards the plain, and only for a few miles, the eye of the traveller from the temperate zone is held with wonder and delight by the beautiful and strange productions of the torrid. He sees for the first time the symmetrical coffee-bush, rich with its dark-green leaves, its pure white blossoms, and its gay, red fruit. The prolific plantain, with its great waving fan-like leaf, and immense pendant branches of golden-looking fruit, enchains his attention. The sugar-cane waves in rank luxuriance before him, and if he be familiar with Southern plantations his heart swells with emotion as the gay yellow blossom and white boll of the cotton sets before his mind's eye the familiar scenes at home.

Fruits, too, of the finest quality and most luscious flavor, grow here; oranges, lemons, bananas, pine-apples, melons, chirimoyas, granadillas, and many others which, unpleasant to the taste at first, become with use exceedingly grateful to the accustomed palate. The

Indian gets here his indispensable coca, and the forests at certain seasons are redolent with the perfume of the vanilla.

It is sad to recollect that in this beautiful country (I have before me the valley of the Chanchamayo,) men should have offered me title deeds in gratuity to as much of this rich land as I wanted. Many of the inhabitants of Tarma hold grants of land in the Chanchamayo country from the government, but are so distrustful of its ability to protect them in their labors from the encroachments of the savages, that they do not cultivate them.

About half a dozen persons only have cleared and are cultivating haciendas. One of these, the brave old Catalan Zapatero, was building himself a fire-proof house, mounting swivels at his gate, and swearing in the jargon of his province that, protection or no protection, he would bide the brunt of the savages, and not give up what had cost him so much time and labor without a fight for it. It is a pity that there are not more like him. The Peruvian government, however, should assure the settlers of efficient protection. It should not only keep up the stockade of San Ramon, but should open a road down the valley of the Chanchamayo to some navigable point on that stream, or to the Ucayali itself, establishing other stockades along the route for the protection from the Indians of those whom liberal offers may attract to the settlement and cultivation of that delightful country. I feel confident that she will pierce the continent and open a communication with the Atlantic with more facility and advantage by this route than by any other.

The climate of this country is pleasant and healthy; it is entirely free from the annoyance of sand flies and musquitoes, which infest the lower part of the tributaries, and nearly the whole course of the Amazon. There is too much rain for agreeability from August to March; but nothing could be more pleasant than the weather when I was there in June.

The country everywhere in Peru, at the eastern foot of the Andes, is such as I have described above. Further down we find the soil, the peculiar condition, the productions of a country which is occasionally overflowed, and then subjected, with still occasional showers, to the influence of a tropical sun. From these causes we see a fecundity of soil and a rapidity of vegetation that is marvellous, and to which even Egypt, the ancient granary of Europe, affords no parallel, because, similar in some other respects, this country has the advantage of Egypt in that there is here no drought. Here trees, evidently young, shoot up to such a height that no fowling piece will reach the game seated on their topmost branches, and with such rapidity that the roots have not strength or sufficient hold upon the soil to support their weight, and they are continually falling, borne down by the slightest breeze, or by the mass of parasites and creepers that envelop them from root to top.

This is the country of rice, of sarsaparilla, of India-rubber, balsam copaiba, gum copal, animal and vegetable wax, cocoa, Brazilian nutmeg, Tonka beans, ginger, black pepper, arrow-root, tapioca, annatto, indigo, sapucaia, and Brazil nuts; dyes of the gayest colors, drugs of rare virtue, variegated cabinet woods of the finest grain, and susceptible of the highest polish. The forests are filled with game, and the

rivers stocked with turtle and fish. Here dwell the anta or wild cow, the peixi-boi or fish-ox, the sloth, the ant-eater, the beautiful black tiger, the mysterious electric eel, the boa constrictor, the anaconda, the deadly coral snake, the voracious alligator, monkeys in endless variety, birds of the most brilliant plumage, and insects of the strangest forms and gayest colors.

The climate of this country is salubrious and the temperature agreeable. The direct rays of the sun are tempered by an almost constant east wind, laden with moisture from the ocean, so that one never suffers either from heat or cold. The man accustomed to this climate is ever unwilling to give it up for a more bracing one, and will generally refuse to exchange the *abandon* and freedom from restraint that characterises his life there, for the labor and struggle necessary even to maintain existence in a more rigorous climate or barren soil. The active, the industrious, and the enterprising, will be here, as elsewhere, in advance of his fellows; but this is the very paradise of the lazy and the careless. Here, and here only, such an one may maintain life almost without labor.

I met with no epidemics on my route; except at Para, the country seemed a stranger to yellow fever, small-pox, or cholera. There seemed to be a narrow belt of country on each side of the Amazon where bilious fevers, called *sezoeus* or *maleitas* were particularly prevalent. These fevers are of malignant type, and often terminate in fatal jaundice. I was told that six or eight days' navigation on each tributary, from the mouth upwards, would bring me to this country, and three or four more would pass me through it; and that I ran little risk of taking the fever if I passed directly through. It appeared, also, to be confined to a particular region of country with regard to longitude. I heard nothing of it on the Huallaga, the Ucayali, or the Tapajos, while it was spoken of with dread on the Trombetas, the Madeira, the Negro, and the Purus. Filth and carelessness in this climate produce ugly cutaneous affections, with which the Indians are much afflicted, and I heard of cases of elephantiasis and leprosy.

I have been describing the country bordering on the Amazon. Up the tributaries, midway between their mouth and source, on each side are wide savannahs, where feed herds of cattle, furnishing a trade in hides; and at the sources of the southern tributaries are ranges of mountains, which yield immense treasures of diamonds and other precious stones.

It is again (as in the case of the country at the foot of the Andes,) sad to think that, excluding the savage tribes, who for any present purposes of good may be ranked with the beasts that perish, this country has not more than one inhabitant for every ten square miles of land; that it is almost a wilderness: that being capable, as it is, of yielding support, comfort, and luxury to many millions of civilized people who have superfluous wants, it should be but the dwelling place of the savage and the wild beast.

Such is the country whose destiny and the development of whose resources is in the hands of Brazil. It seems a pity that she should undertake the work alone; she is not strong enough; she should do what we are not too proud to do, stretch out her hands to the world at large, and say, "Come and help us to subdue the wilderness; here are

homes, and broad lands, and protection for all who choose to come." She should break up her steamboat monopoly, and say to the sea-faring and commercial people of the world, "We are not a maritime people; we have no skill or practice in steam navigation; come and do our carrying, while we work the lands; bring your steamers laden with your manufactures, and take from the banks of our rivers the rich productions of our vast regions." With such a policy, and taking means to preserve her nationality, for which she is now abundantly strong, I have no hesitation in saying, that I believe in fifty years Rio Janeiro, without loosing a tittle of her wealth and greatness, will be but a village to Para, and Para will be what New Orleans would long ago have been but for the activity of New York and her own fatal climate, the greatest city of the New World; Santarem will be St. Louis, and Barra, Cincinnati.

The citizens of the United States are, of all foreign people, most interested in the free navigation of the Amazon. We, as in comparison with other foreigners, would reap the lion's share of the advantages to be derived from it. We would fear no competition. Our geographical position, the winds of Heaven, and the currents of the ocean, are our potential auxiliaries. Thanks to Maury's investigations of the winds and currents, we know that a chip flung into the sea at the mouth of the Amazon will float close by Cape Hatteras. We know that ships sailing from the mouth of the Amazon, for whatever port of the world are forced to our very doors by the SE. and NE. trade winds; that New York is the half-way house between Para and Europe.

We are now Brazil's best customer and most natural ally. President Aranha knew this. At a dinner-party given by him at Barra, his first toast was, "To the nation of America most closely allied with Brazil—the United States." And he frequently expressed to me his strong desire to have a thousand of my active countrymen to help him to subdue the wilderness, and show the natives how to work. I would that all Brazilians were influenced by similar sentiments. Then would the mighty river, now endeared to me by association, no longer roll its sullen waters through miles of unbroken solitude; no longer would the deep forests that line its banks afford but a shelter for the serpent, the tiger, and the Indian; but, furrowed by a thousand keels, and bearing upon its waters the mighty wealth that civilization and science would call from the depths of those dark forests, the Amazon would "rejoice as a strong man to run a race;" and in a few years we might, without great hyperbole, or doing much violence to fancy, apply to this river Byron's beautiful lines:

> "The casteled crag of Drachenfels
> Frowns o'er the wide and winding Rhine,
> Whose breast of waters broadly swells
> Between the banks that bear the vine;
> And hills all rich with blossomed trees,
> And fields that promise corn and wine,
> With scattered cities crowning these,
> Whose far white walls along them shine."

Then might Brazil, pointing to the blossoming wilderness, the well cultivated farm, the busy city, the glancing steamboat, and listening to the hum of the voices of thousands of active and prosperous men, say,

with pride and truth: "Thus much have we done for the advancement of civilization and the happiness of the human race."

In making out this report, I have been guided by the letter and spirit of my instructions, and have striven to present a clear and faithful picture of the subjects indicated by them. These were, in brief terms, the present condition of the country — its productions and resources—the navigability of its streams—its capacities for trade and commerce—and its future prospects. This must be my excuse for my meagre contributions to general science. More, I fear, has been expected in this way than has been done; yet the expedition has collected some valuable specimens in each of the kingdoms of natural history, and I hope to obtain means and authority to have them properly described and illustrated.

I have mentioned in various parts of my report the names of persons who have assisted me by counsel or information. I shall close it with the name of the last, the ablest, and the best. Whatever of interest and value may be found in the report, is mainly attributable to the guiding judgment and cheering heart of my friend and kinsman, M. F. Maury.

ARTICLE V.

Valley of the Ohio.

BY MANN BUTLER, ESQ.

Continued from page 19, vol. XII. No. 1.

VIRGINIA NEGOTIATIONS FOR ARMS THROUGH COLS. GIBSON AND LINN WITH THE SPANISH GOVERNOR OF LOUISIANA IN 1776. 156 KEGS OF GUNPOWDER BROUGHT FROM NEW ORLEANS TO FORT PITT. 2D EXPEDITION FROM FORT PITT TO N. ORLEANS FOR MILITARY STORES, BY COL. DAVID ROGERS; HIS DEFEAT AND DEATH NEAR THE LITTLE MIAMI. EXTRAORDINARY ADVENTURES OF CAPT. ROBERT T. BENHAM ON THAT EXPEDITION. EARLY ANGLO-AMERICAN DESCENT OF THE MISS., FROM FORT PITT IN 1769 BY COL. RICHARD TAYLOR AND HIS BROTHER HANCOCK TAYLOR, FATHER AND UNCLE TO THE LATE PRESIDENT TAYLOR. A SECOND DESCENT OF THE SAME RIVER IN 1774. FOUNDATION OF LEXINGTON, KY., IN 1779.

While the pioneers were thus bravely defending themselves against appalling numbers of savage enemies, the government of the parent State was not inattentive to the interests of her western children. By a stretch of diplomacy scarcely to have been expected, in so young a State, just sprung out of colonial bondage, yet still used to much independent care of her wide and exposed dominion, the executive of Virginia dispatched a mission to New Orleans for the

purpose of procuring military supplies for her western posts. The officers sent on this perilous expedition were Colonels Gibson and Linn, the latter the grandfather of the late Dr. Lewis F. Linn, the lamented senator from the State of Missouri. These gentlemen descended the Mississippi in 1776, from Fort Pitt to New Orleans, by orders, it is presumed, from the governor of Virginia.

So extraordinary an adventure may well require particular confirmation, for the satisfaction of the reader. It can be furnished to a most remarkable degree. John Smith, lately, that is in 1833, a resident of Woodford county, in the State of Kentucky, was in 1776 engaged reconnoitering the country in company with James Harrod, so eminently distinguished in the difficulties and dangers of Kentucky.

On their return, the companions separated; Harrod to go to North Carolina, and Smith to Potter's Creek, on the Monongahela. While travelling on the bank of the Ohio, the latter discovered Gibson and party descending the river; they hailed Smith, and prevailed upon him to embark on this, one of the boldest of western adventures. The party succeeded in their object with the Spanish government at New Orleans, by obtaining one hundred and fifty-six kegs of gunpowder. This, Smith helped to carry around the falls of Ohio to the mouth of Bear Grass Creek in the spring of 1777. Each man carried three kegs along the portage, one at a time. This powder was delivered at Wheeling or Fort Henry, and thence conveyed to Fort Pitt. Independent of this particularity of circumstances learned from an old and most venerable citizen of Louisville,* it was solemnly deposed to, in a suit at law by a respectable party in the transaction. It was frequently mentioned by Col. Linn in his life time, and is still known [1833] as his information in the family left by this gallant and energetic man.†

This remarkable adventure is confirmed by another of a similar nature, undertaken by Col. David Rogers and Capt. Robert T. Benham. The former officer had been dispatched with a couple of keel boats to New Orleans, from some point on the upper Ohio, for the same purpose as Col's. Gibson and Linn, to procure military supplies for the western posts. This is mentioned in the let-

* The late Worden Pope, Esq., long clerk with untainted reputation to the highest courts of law in Jefferson county, Ky.

Capt. Donne, formerly a well known pilot of the Falls, at Louisville, Ky.

ter of instructions from Gov. Henry addressed to Lieut. Col. Clark, dated 2d January, 1778.‡ In this letter the Governor refers to the supplies brought from New Orleans by "*Capt. Lynn*," as he calls him.

The particulars of this second expedition are equally worthy of enumeration, resting as they do, upon information of the most unquestionable authority.*

When Rogers reached the mouth of the Ozark or Arkansas, he sailed up that river, some twelve or eighteen leagues, to the head of back water from the Mississippi, and above the overflown ground; here, he deposited one of his boats, and stationed his men, while he proceeded with six or seven of them, including Capt. Benham, down the Mississippi to New Orleans. When he arrived at this city, he found a British sloop of war in the port, the captain of which suspicious of the object of an American party from this direction, [a circumstance of no common occurrence at that day,] watched his movements narrowly, and impeded his business with the Spanish officers. For although these were well disposed to promote the American interests, yet, as the courts of Madrid and London were not openly at war, embarrassment was unavoidable in the presence of a British force.† The situation of Col. Rogers was truly perplexing. Under these circumstances, he found it necessary to send Benham back to Virginia through the appalling country, on the west side of the Mississippi. He, with the hardihood characteristic of the times, subsisting principally on Indian corn boiled in lye, to preserve it, passed through the Indian wilderness to Kaskaskia, then under the dominion of the same wide spreading State, that had sent him to New Orleans. Thence, he proceeded to the Falls of Ohio, in the spring of 1779; soon after his arrival at that place, Rogers, by some unexplained success, reached the same place with his two keel boats loaded with military supplies on his return to Fort Pitt. Capt. Benham was joyfully taken on board, and placed in command of one of the boats, and the little American squadron, the second escort of military supplies procured by our daring countrymen from New Orleans, moved

‡ See Appendix, p. 448 and 449.

* The late Judge Dunlavy, of Ohio, and Joseph S. Benham, Esq., formerly an eminent lawyer of the bar at Louisville, Ky., and St. Louis, as well as Judge Burnet's Notes, 292.

† The declaration of war on the part of Spain against England took place January 16th, 1779.

on its destination up the Ohio. When the expedition reached the sand bar above the present city of Cincinnati, it was bare for more than half the width of the river; here the party stopped on the Kentucky shore to prepare breakfast; it stopped *a mile below the Little Miami.*" A number of Indians on rafts and in canoes was then seen coming out of the mouth of the Little Miami, which was then high, and shot its waters [and consequently the Indians on their rafts,] nearly across the Ohio river. On seeing the enemy, Col. Rogers ordered his men to prepare and meet them; thinking he would be able to surprise them. But on marching through the willows with which the bar was then covered, and before they had arrived at the place where they expected to meet the Indians, they were themselves surrounded by overpowering numbers. The enemy quickly dispatched the greatest portion of the crew, with their gallant commander Col. Rogers. One of the boats, however, escaped with two men, and reached the Falls. Not more than nine or ten of the party ever returned to their families.

The Indians took and plundered one of the boats, out of which they got considerable booty, consisting of ready made clothing and munitions of war, which had been obtained from the Spaniards for the use of the forces on the western frontiers of Virginia.

It is not a little remarkable, that in the course of some years afterwards, one of the periodical freshets of the river having subsided, several gross of metal buttons were found on the bar, where this battle had been fought. They were deposited, by the fisherman who found them, in Dorfuille's Museum, at Cincinnati.*

The adventures of Capt. Benham are too romantic to be overlooked, supported as they are by most unquestionable testimony. Capt. Benham, shortly after breaking through the enemy's line, was dangerously wounded in the hip.† Fortunately a large tree had lately fallen near the spot where he lay, and with great pain he dragged himself among its bushy branches, and lay concealed. The Indians eager in pursuit of others, passed him without notice; and by midnight, all was quiet. On the following day the enemy returned to the battle ground, in order to strip the dead, and take

* There seems to be some confusion in the original account furnished to the author, by the late Judge Dunlavy, of Ohio, and Joseph S. Benham, a son of Capt. Benham. It represents the party above stated, as coming out of the Little Miami, and yet coming from an attack upon the settlements of Kentucky. The discrepancy is irreconcilable by any means, in the author's possession.

† McClung's Sketches.

care of the plunder. Benham although in danger of famishing, permitted the Indians to pass without making known his condition; correctly supposing that his crippled condition would only induce them to tomahawk him upon the spot, in order to avoid the trouble of carrying him to their towns. He therefore lay close, till evening of the second day, when perceiving a raccoon descending a tree near him, he shot it hoping to devise some means of reaching it, kindle a fire, and make a meal. Scarcely had his gun cracked, than he heard a human cry apparently not more than fifty yards off. Supposing it to be an Indian, he hastily reloaded his gun, and remained silent, expecting the approach of an enemy. Presently the same voice was heard again, but much nearer. Still Benham made no reply; but cocked his gun, and sat ready to fire, as soon as an object appeared. A third halloo was quickly heard followed by an exclamation of distress, which convinced Benham that the unknown must be a white man. The man now appeared as he had escaped from the late encounter with *both arms broken*. In this crippled condition, the two wounded men though wounded so differently, were enabled to help each other. Benham could load his gun and kill game with readiness, while his associate would kick the game to the spot, where Benham sat, and cooked it. When no wood was near, the armless man would rake up brush with his feet and gradually roll it within reach of the hands of Benham. In this painful way, Benham both fed his companion and dressed *his* wounds, as well as his own; tearing up both of their shirts for this purpose. Their greatest difficulty was in procuring water; but Benham took his own hat, and putting the rim between the teeth of his companion directed him to wade into the Licking river, up to his neck, and then dip the hat in, by sinking his head under the water. In this wonderful manner, [it must be admitted,] the two wounded soldiers are most credibly reported to have helped each other, till late in the ensuing fall, about the latter part of November, 1779. The crippled party had by this time, owing to increasing strength, managed to put up a small shed or camp at the mouth of Licking river, with the hope of arresting the attention of some passing boatmen. After much difficulty and parley, [for white men were often employed by the Indians as decoys to bring passengers into their power by cries of pretended distress,] the helpless and forlorn couple were taken to Louisville; their former clothes, which had been taken off by the escaping

boat, were restored to them, and after a few weeks confinement, they recovered their health.*

But this is not the earliest exploration of the Mississippi pursued by our countrymen, and this occasion may well draw attention to this interesting navigation of the greatest river of our country, and among the largest of the earth.

The earliest Anglo-American enterprise in this direction, and indeed of wonderful boldness, which the author has been able to discover, is that of Col. *Richard Taylor*, late of the county of Jefferson, in the State of Kentucky, and often honored by distinguished public trusts. He was the father of the late President of the United States, Gen. Zach. Taylor. This gentleman, with his brother, *Hancock Taylor*, both of Virginia, was at Fort Pitt, in 1769, and thence descended the Ohio and the Mississippi, as far as the Yazoo river. From this point, the brothers passed through the country of the southern Indians to Georgia, and thence home.†

The second was that of John Whitacker Willis, John Ashby, and William Bolland, of Stafford and Fauquier counties, in Virginia. These men were engaged in the battle of Point Pleasant, in 1774, and after the engagement, visited Kentucky, as Boone and Harrod and others are known to have revisited it, after that memorable encounter, for the novelty of the enterprise. Being afraid to return to Virginia by land, along the usual route, they hollowed out a pirogue from the body of a large tree, and passed

* This account is so wonderful that, without full confirmation, the author would scarcely hazard its publication; but the particulars were extensively known at the time, and came to the author from the late Joseph Benham, Esq., a lawyer distinguished at the bar of Cincinnati, Louisville and St. Louis, and father in law to Geo. D. Prentice, the distinguished editor of the Louisville Journal. His letter to the author contained the following additional particulars: "His companion in distress whose arms were broken, still [1833] lives in the town of Brownsville, Pa., which at the time he joined Roger's expedition, was almost the Ultima Thule of western emigration. Capt. Benham left the Falls as soon as his wounds would permit, and returned home by way of New Orleans. He returned to the West in Harmar's campaign; was Commissary General to the army under Gen. St. Clair, and continued in the service performing arduous and responsible duties, until after the treaty of Greenville, in 1795, which put a period to the bloody sequel, to the war of Independence.

In St. Clair's defeat, at the request of the General, when the army was surrounded by the Indians, he mounted his horse, and was among the foremost in leading on the bloody charge, which broke through the enemy's lines, and opened a way to save the remnant of the army. In this battle, he was again wounded. He was many years a useful and active member of the Territorial and State Legislatures of Ohio. His adventures may well be deemed notorious and authentic.

† This information was obtained from a deposition in a suit at law, communicated to the author by the late Worden Pope, of estimable memory in Kentucky.

down the rivers in it, to New Orleans. From this point the party made its way to Pensacola, then in possession of the British; here they were assisted by the Governor, and conveyed to Charleston, in South Carolina, whence their return to Virginia was easy.*

The next effort at this perilous navigation by our own countrymen that I have met with, was the public mission of Cols. Gibson and Linn to New Orleans already related.

No doubt the navigation of the Mississippi had been familiar to the French, from their remotest posts on the lakes to New Orleans. Indeed it had become a common course of mercantile business from Quebec and Montreal to the French possessions on the Mississippi; as well as the channel of military expeditions.

About the spring of 1779, a block house was built where the neat and beautiful city of Lexington now adorns the State of Kentucky, with her fruitful literary and scientific institutions. Here a settlement was begun, under the lead and direction of Robert Patterson, an early and meritorious adventurer in the West, much engaged in its defence and settlement. Col. Patterson was joined by the McConnels, Lindseys, and James Masterton. Soon after them, Maj. John Morrison removed his family from Harrodsburg and Mrs. Morrison is said to have been the first white female settled in Lexington. This name so well calculated to awaken patriotic associations was given by the pioneers to commemorate the battle of that name, so memorable at the commencement of the American Revolution. A name indeed well calculated to perpetuate the patriotic sentiments, for which the citizens of Lexington have ever been distinguished, even among a high-spirited people.

Bryant's station, about five miles north-eastward of Lexington, was settled by the Bryants also in 1779, and several stations were erected in the neighborhood of the present town of Danville. This notice must suffice for the rise of the towns of Kentucky now merging fast into the general settlement of the country.

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* These men were neighbors of Capt. *William B. Wallace*, a worthy veteran of the revolution, formerly of Virginia, but lately of Anderson county, Ky., where he died amid the regrets of a large circle of admiring friends. He had stood sentry at the tent of Gov Henry at the opening of the revolution, although a gentleman of good estate. At that early day, it was matter of emulation and struggle not to get into *commission*, but to get into the *ranks* of the defenders of the republic. This most worthy gentleman is my authority for the above facts.

Credit, Gold and Silver.

System of Finance.

Cash and Credit are two main ingredients of commercial business. Cash is essential when there is no faith. Credit is employed when ability and integrity are acknowledged. The proportion of cash and of credit that is requisite at any time or place to do a judicious business, depends upon the degree of faith in the ability and integrity of the party asking for credit, to perform the promise of payment in cash at maturity.

Standing on the position of first principles, it is plainly seen that the wants of a civil community are supplied by various agents, that of money having no part or lot in the matter. The first wants are food, clothing and shelter. Food is obtained by agriculture, clothing by manufacture, and shelter by mechanic arts. Industry in each one of these spheres supplies the wants in each other, by the primitive mode of commerce—the exchange of the superabundance of food for sufficient clothing and shelter; the superabundance of clothing for sufficient food and shelter; and superabundance of shelter for sufficient food and clothing.

Exchange then was, and it still is the medium principle on which business transactions were and are conducted. This medium principle sprang into being through the co-operation of two laws: *credit* and *necessity*—credit given by the farmer to the mechanic, for the food of which the mechanic was in absolute want; credit given by the mechanic to the farmer for clothing and shelter, of which the farmer was in absolute want.

But after the primitive wants of food, clothing and shelter were supplied, and a superabundance of all these products were obtained, a passion for luxurious superfluities arose, a demand was made for spices and perfumes, "purple and fine linen," marble and mahagony, and also for gold and silver. These luxurious superfluities were considered a *secondary necessity* to those who became habituated to them, and who were able from the superabundance of their houses, lands and products, to *exchange* their surplus proceeds, for supplies of these articles, including gold and silver; and here again *credit* co operated with the new necessity to bring about an exchange of food, machinery, &c., for gold, silver, &c.

Yet gold and silver were not good to eat, even for Midas whose food, as every thing he touched turned into gold, with which wonderful fortune he died a miserable death by starvation.

Gold and silver clothing would be more endurable than gold and silver food, though at best inconvenient and uncomfortable.

Houses full of gold and silver were suggested by the Simon mixed Balaam of old, who tried to use the Holy Spirit as an agent in obtaining for himself pecuniary glory, but the nearest practical approach that gold and silver have made to food, clothing and shelter, is as articles to eat with, as ornaments on tables, persons and houses.

Still gold and silver please the eye, and as their greatest virtue is their good looks, they were sent out by their owners for the purpose of circulating as mediums through whose instrumentality articles of more importance could be obtained. They gained credit, were acknowledged as having great extrinsic if not intrinsic merit. The fashion of society stamped them with peculiar value, and raised them as standards. They became objects of idolatry, the dual God of this world—the almighty dollar.

Credit for food, for clothing, and for shelter, could not then be gained without the intercession of this omnipotent though spiritless dust. The heart of man was set on an ornamental mineral. He who carried not the ornament, was compelled to bear disgrace. Honesty and genius were forced to die in want at the door of the rich and soulless Dives. Faith in industry, talent and integrity, were lost under the dominion of Mexican gold and silver, as in Spain. The tyranny of money enslaved the liberty of credit. A civil war for the freedom of the poor against the oppressions of the rich arose, and this struggle, renewed through centuries with varying fortunes, unto the present day, is still maintained by the necessity and spirit of the people.

A few years ago, the people of Missouri felt the necessity of Railroad improvements to develop their resources, and gave evidence of a spirited determination to realize their wishes; but they had gold and silver enough only to start the enterprise. They called upon the State for credit. They felt the full force of their necessities, and displayed an indomitable spirit to supply them. The State yielded to their demand, and granted them $8,250,000 of credit, to aid them in their Railroad improvements. This was a triumph of an oppressed people struggling with a rich State,

and the State did great honor to itself in granting credit to its people. This policy was both liberal and judicious. It gave freedom to the enterprising energy of the people, and stimulated them in the career of independence, while it made a profitable investment for the interests, and secured the faith of the State.

Now the question arises how shall this State credit be employed, in order to realize the greatest immediate profit, and at the same time to insure the firmest ultimate credit among the people?

The constitution of the State prohibits the incorporation of more than one Banking Company. The statute of the State prohibits Individual Banking, and also prohibits the circulation within the State of Bank notes of other States.

But the people want good notes, and so great is this want that they daily violate the law to obtain even those that are not good. This law has, in this respect, become a dead letter. The bad notes of other States come to Msssouri, and take away the gold and silver from the people, while the private Banking prohibition is enforced. By which means the people risk the evils, and lose the profits of the system. While these unfortunate results are springing from commercial necessities under the present law; why may not the law be modified so as to avoid the evils, and realize the profits of an ordinary system of finance? Why may not good notes, protected by State security, private responsibility, and a certain safe proportion of gold and silver, be issued by individual citizens and private partnerships in the State, with authority of law? Since the present law has lost all force against foreign interests, why should it be maintained against domestic interests? Why should the capitalists of Missouri be prevented from furnishing the people with a sound currency, when the same people are daily dependent on foreign capitalists, whose currency is below par, because it is foreign.

Let the present statute be modified to suit the wants of the people; then they would realize the greatest immediate profit from the State credit; the State would raise the credit of the people, while securing additional value to its own; the notes of other States would be returned home, and the gold and silver, which they have taken from, would be returned to Missouri; money would become safe and plenty; manufactures would arise; business be more and more active; farmers would increase their fortunes; and Railroad enterprises, which above all others need this aid, would be

driven on with redoubled force. The system of finance here suggested may be easily realized.

Let the constitution of Missouri be maintained, and the statute only amended, granting the privilege of individual banking with a certain safe proportion of public securities, private responsibilities and gold and silver. Let the capitalists of Missouri issue notes protected by this three-fold security, that by these notes the credit of the State and its gold and silver may come home to and co-operate with the credit of the people; and, together with the establishment of such a system, let the absolute law of interest be repealed, and the cause of manufactures promoted; then credit, gold and silver will all be realized in more abundance by all the people of the State, and every germ of their prosperity grow with new impulses of life.

These are intended only as general suggestions of relief arising from the oppressive wants of the people. This subject will be discussed *pro* and *con* more thoroughly in some future number of the JOURNAL.

ARTICLE VI.

Manufacture of Stone.

BY LOUIS S. ROBBINS, ESQ., OF NEW YORK.

The preparation of stone for building houses and other elegant and substantial structures, has for ages been both a difficulty and a desideratum.

Stone is the most natural and the most endurable material for architecture.

The temples and the pyramids of Egypt are venerable witnesses of the superiority of this material over wood or clay, corroborating by their testimony, what the common sense of mankind freely acknowledges.

But the mechanic arts of the Egyptians were more mysterious than their hieroglyphics. Their writings have been deciphered, but their science in architecture remains inscrutable.

The principles on which they prepared, and especially by which they raised the solid rock of obelisk, like a tower piercing the clouds, and by which they built the mountain like monuments of their splendor, were lost with the people who employed them, and

have not yet been re-discovered, even among the astonishing inventions of modern civilization.

The spirit of discovery in the present age has been directed to the invention of machinery to meet present wants. Thoughts of the distant future, of the erection of material monuments, which will tell throughout all ages with a single glance the condition of refinement in society at the present time — these thoughts are all overclouded by the passion for immediate gain and amusement.

But the time has come when more liberal and enlightened views should be taken, when at least future good should be considered in intimate connection with present gain, when firm stability should be appreciated as strongly as fair appearance, when the principles of solidity and grandeur should be exemplified in architecture as well as in intelligence, at the expense both of affectation and of stucco.

Stucco in architecture and affectation in intelligence are both ephemeral; they cannot stand the test of time, and although they are tinsel ornaments, they are at the same time indications of a dawning taste for a more brilliant and substantial refinement, as the first faint rays of the morning give promise of the glorious day approaching.

The day has now dawned when stucco in architecture must fade away in the broad light of brilliant and substantial stone structures. In fact brick itself, with or without stucco, must yield the palm to stone.

Within the fire limits of cities, wood is already superceded. Brick and stone are, by virtue of law, arising from the danger of wood, left as the sole rival building materials. On account of the primary cheapness of brick, and the passion for the highest immediate income from buildings, brick has heretofore been almost universally employed and stone neglected in architecture. But a greater foresight is now being awakened, a better feeling is now being cultivated, a stronger regard for ultimate profit, and a finer taste for elegant stability is now really entertained; and, with all these evidences of progress in the Fine Art of Architecture, cheapness of price in the preparation of stone for building purposes, which is now obtained by the aid of inventions in machinery, must give additional impulse to the public mind for the demand of stone as a building material. The good sense and the fine taste of the community must become a law unto itself, by virtue of which brick

as well as wood must be supplanted, within the elegant and substantial limits of cities, by varied stone, polished marble and indestructible granite.

The Pacific Railroad is now ready to bring the sand stone and marble from the Meramec, and soon the Iron Mountain Railroad will be ready to bring the sand stone and marble from along its route, and also granite and porphyry from the St. Francis to the doors of St. Louis, where marble buildings are already erected by private enterprise, which are ornaments of the city, and objects of admiration to both citizens and strangers.

Soon public buildings, a custom house, a city hall, additional churches, colleges, hotels, &c., will be in process of construction. These buildings will of course be made of the most elegant and substantial material, and they will be new incentives to the erection of private residences of a kindred order.

While thus the good sense and the fine taste of the people is turning to the importance of grand and beautiful buildings, while great varieties of excellent material abound around St. Louis, while the railroads will soon be bringing it to hand in profusion with reasonable prices, it is a source of gratification to learn that the difficulty of the preparation of the raw material for the finest use has been overcome, and the desideratum realized.

The Empire Stone Co. of St. Louis, lately organized, expect soon to furnish stone planed and prepared for use, by aid of machinery recently invented, at a price which will accommodate both the purse and the taste of the people, and which, while promoting the fortune and the refinement of the community, must return an extraordinary amount of profit to the company.

The people of St. Louis, and indeed the whole Mississippi valley, feel an interest in this enterprise. Its commencement gives encouragement to the spirit of manufacturing, the importance of which needs no discussion. Its operations necessarily result in adding those substantial and desirable improvements already established in most of the Atlantic cities where great private and public profit and reputation have been gained by architectural improvements furnished by this means. The minds of those who live at a distance will receive an impulse from this movement; they will be impressed with the character of this people for enterprise, taste and refinement, and will feel confidence in the promised greatness of this inland city of the West—the destiny of which may be seen in her rapid growth and prosperity within the last fourteen years, and in her present disposition to encourage those improvements that contribute to its ultimate realization.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF CHICAGO.

Receipts of Produce and Merchandise at Chicago during the year 1853.

Description.	*Lake.*	*Canal.*	*Railroad.*	*Total.*
Agricult'l Implements, pks.	5,832			5,832
" " lbs.		44,078		44,078
Agricult'l products		93,006	432,690	525,696
Ale and Beer, bbls.	140	3	256	399
Apples	10,009		7955	17,964
Ashes, lbs.	17,400		967	18,367
Anchors, No.	26			26
Bark, cds.	719			719
Barley, bu.	1,576	25,610	136,401	163,587
Barrels, No.	9,633	8,761		18,394
Beans, bu.		1,303	288	1,581
Beef, bbls.		106	101	207
Bran and Shorts, lbs.		46,000	1,239,965	1,285,971
Brick, No.	2,764,614	33,800		2,798,414
Broom corn, lbs.		134,414		134,414
B. Wheat flour, lbs.			13,481	13 481
Buggies and Wagons	69	8		77
Butter, lbs.		77,049	735,581	812,430
Beeswax "		4,601		4,601
Brooms, No.	2,328			2,328
Candles, lbs.	15,000	43,443		58,443
Castings, pkgs.	2,635			2,635
" lbs.	266,000			266,000
Cheese "	8,100	926	35,639	44,665
Cider, bbls.	115	1		116
Coal, lbs.	72,705,000	4,369,560	22,000	77,096,560
Coffee "		108,655		108,656
Corn, bu.		2,481,334	251,775	2,733,119
Cranberries, lbs.	1,200		11,180	12,380
Crockery crts., No.	238			238
Chain cables	10			10
Dried Fruit, lbs.	80,500		213,252	293,752
Eggs, bbls.	2	202	59	263
Feathers, lbs.		7,456		7,456
Fish, bbls.	7,112	3		7,115
Flax, lbs.		12,990		12,990
Flour, bbls.	2,265	7,223	38,808	48,297
Fur're and Bag'e, pk.	1,591			1,591
" lbs.	37,000	140,029	1,603,621	1,780,650
Fruit "	3,800	203,426		207,226
Furs and Peltries "	3,200	48,516	36,867	88,584
Garden roots "		188,710	489,890	678,600
Glass "	303,150	4,220		317,370
Grass seed "	54,600	1,027,363	1,115,024	2,197,987

Description.	*Lake.*	*Canal.*	*Railroad.*	*Total.*
Grease, bbls.		85,918		85,918
Grind stones, lbs.	5,915			5,915
Gas pipe "	270,000			270,000
Hair "	8,400	680		9,080
Hams and Bacon lbs.	276,000	5,206,222	7,963	5,490,185
Hay "	15,000	494,500		509,500
Hemp "		852,030		852,030
Hides and Skins "	3,260	873,546	397,505	1,274,311
HighWines&Whiskey,bbls.	1,567	376	6,514	8,487
H'ps, Head'g, &c.	120,500			120,500
lbs.		245,190	1,215,234	1,460,404
Hops "	7,750	920		8,670
Horns "		16.200		16,200
Iron and Nails "	33,875,640	73,856	2,350,416	36,299,912
Lard "	21,900	866,668		888,568
Lath, No.	39,133,116			39,133,116
Lead, lbs.	108,150	1,286,604	1,589,009	3,253,763
Lead pipe, sheet & roll. "	15,450	131,621		147 071
Leather "	326,020	19,127	59,936	405,083
Lime, bbls.	225	469	1	695
Liquor "	357	70		427
Locomotives, No.	22			22
Lumber, ft.	191,879,111	54,615	10,167,352	202,101,078
Machinery, lbs.	10,000	37,073		48,073
Marble, pieces	2,739			2,739
lbs.	1,638,000	7.400		1,645,400
Meal "		62,146	16,029	78.175
Mdze, pkgs.	1,038,889	1,000	11,920	1,051 809
lbs.	13,589,500	325,957	21,067,221	34,982,678
Milk, gals.			25,278	25,278
Mill stones, lbs.			47,250	47,250
Molasses "	115,000	2,194,978		2,309,978
Oakum, bales	340			340
Oats, bu.		971,350	501,691	1,473,041
Oil, bbls.	245			254
Paint "	117			117
P'ches, bsks. & bbls.	690			690
Pig iron	8,484,000	64,070		8,548,070
Plas'r & Stuc., bbls.	1,286		16	1,302
Pork in barrels	24	11,191	35	11,280
Pork in hog, lbs.			3,045,924	3,045,924
Potatoes, bu.	2,637	15,694	41,936	60,267
Powder, lbs.	808,000	200		808,200
Posts, No.	402,471			402,471
Pickets	84,755			84,755
Provisions, lbs.		35,190	3,468,528	3,503,718
Piles, No.	2,696			2,6[illegible]6
Rags, lbs.	3,900	39,350		43,250
R. R. Iron, bar	174,142			174,142
lbs.	34,204,000	82,792		34,286,792
" Furnishing "	1,835,736			1,835,736

Description.	*Lake.*	*Canal.*	*Railroad.*	*Total.*
" Cars, No.	4			4
Rosin, bbls.	1,898			1,899
Rye, bu.	22	3,947	1,152	5,122
Rope, coils	352			352
Saleratus, lbs.	47,050	285		47,335
Salt, bbls.	81,408	38	343	81,789
bgs.	90,640	6,231		96,871
Shingles, No.	93,206,784		277,000	93,483,784
Shingle bolts, cds.	15,668	44,228		201,015
Shot, lbs.		218,689		218,689
Soap "	9,500	302,666		312,166
Steel, brs. and slabs.	1,195			1,195
lbs.	54,000			54,000
Stone and Slate, lbs.	1,792,000	161,537		1,953,537
Stone dressed "	70,000	10		70,010
Stone ware, lbs.	100,500			100,500
do. gals.	47,500			47,500
do. pcs.	3,708			3,708
Stvs. & Hardware, lbs.	2,627,002	1,938	360	2,629,801
Sugar "	149,100	9,228,080	4,284,000	13,561,180
Starch "	35,000	200		35,200
Staves, No.	2,110,539			2,110,539
Tallow, lbs.	13,800	5,013		18,318
Tar, Pitch&Turpent., bbls.	489	300		789
Tierces	320			320
Timber, ft.	4,558,326	80,220		4,638,546
Tobacco, lbs.	81,600	222,234		303,834
Ties	175,252			175,252
Teleg'h poles, No.	3,470			3,470
Trees	7,750			7,750
Vinegar, bbls.	205	12		217
Water lime "	6,510	137		6,647
Wheat bu.	62,031	352,103	975,351	1,389,485
Wheel barrows	500			500
White lead, lbs.	157,451	264,210		421,660
Wine, boxes	55			55
Wood, cords	12,000		4,187	16,187
Wooden ware, pcs.	42,753			42,753
do. lbs.	38,000			38,000
Wool "	69,700	392,173	568,727	1,930,600
Water pipe, pcs.	7,644			7,644
do. lbs.	2,320,000			2,320,000
Articles not enumer'd. lbs.	30,600	2,256,547	3,741,550	6,028,667
LIVE STOCK.				
Car Loads			244	244
Cattle, head	91		265	356
Horses	21		953	984
Hogs			13,138	13,138
Sheep			2,085	2,085

Shipments of Produce and Merchandise at Chicago during the year 1853.

Description.	*Lake.*	*Canal.*	*Railroad.*	*Total.*
Agr'l Implt's., No.	351			351
" lbs.		713,387		713,387
Ag'l Products		15,732	105,842	121,574
Ale and Beer, bbls.	68	41	182	291
Apples "	785		123	908
Ashes, lbs.	41,000	45,520		86,520
Bark "		506,100		506,100
Barley and Malt, bu.	79,689	59	40,527	120,275
Beans	3,841	3	132	3,976
Beef, bbls.	64,364	119	16	64,499
Beeswax, lbs.	5,500			5,500
Bran and Shorts		3,000	130,447	133,447
Brick	6,000	6,900		12,900
Broom Corn, bales	2,022			2,022
Buggies and Wagons		467		467
do. lbs.		466,865		466,865
Butter "	505,800		71,588	577,388
Candles "		450		450
Casting, pkgs.	12			12
Cheese, lbs.		2,918	30,873	33,791
Cider, bbls.	81	55		136
Coal, lbs.	233,000	769,645	4975,129	5,977,774
Coffee "		519		519
Corn, bu.	2,739,552	25	40,676	2,780,253
Cotton, raw in bales		1,200		1,200
Cranberries, lbs.			1,120	1,120
Copper, pigs	177			177
Crockery, lbs.		7,525		7,525
Dried Fruits "	48,200		56,276	104,476
Eggs, bbls.	1,121	7		1,128
Feathers, lbs.	1,200			1,200
Fish, bbls.	258	1,834		2,092
Flour "	70,984	1,107	2,099	74,190
Fur. & Bagg'e, pkgs.	264			264
do. lbs.		828,468	827,806	1,656,274
Furs and Peltries, pks.	2,488			2,488
do. lbs.			152,785	152,785
Fruit "		109,393		109,393
Garden Roots "		174,600	1,410	176,010
Grass seed "	1,399,350	29,341	756,578	2,185,269
Grind stones	141			141
Ginseng, bbls.	71			71
Hair, bales	96			96
Hair, lbs.		58,735		58,735

Description.	*Lake.*	*Canal.*	*Railroad.*	*Total.*
Hams & Bacon lbs.	8,554,580	5,225	706,513	9,266,318
Hay, bales	668			668
Hay, lbs.	52,000			52,000
Hemp, bales	3,957			3,975
Hemp, lbs.		300		300
HighWines&Whis., bbls.	5,273	816	938	7,027
Hoops and Heading	21,050			21,050
do. lbs.		26,871		26,871
Hops "	19,500	62,645		82,145
Horns and Hoofs	62,440			62,440
Hides and Skins	57,901			57,901
do. bdls.	1,105			1,105
do. lbs.			6,898	6,898
Iron and Nails "		2,154,407	6067,486	8,221,903
Lard "	1,846,000	1,852		1,847,852
Lath, no.		11279,958	6663,906	17,043,864
Lead, lbs.	3,100,990		151,660	3,252,650
Lead pipe,sheet&roll,lbs.	7,500	540		7,940
Leather	270,500	146,281	7,765	424,546
Lime, bbls.	43	1,417	640	2,100
Liquor	845	748		1,593
Lumber, ft.	149,000	58026056	30734292	88,909,348
Machinery, lbs.		830,642		830,642
Marble, pcs.	320			320
do. lbs.		861,981		861,981
Meal "	352,600	2,004	816	355,420
Mdze, pkgs.	16,633			16,633
do. lbs.	17,640,000	9,771,696	94795354	122207,050
Mill stones "		16,800	24,702	41,502
Molasses "		20,761		20,761
Oats, bu.	1,633,842	483	114,168	1,748,493
Oil, bbls.	107	215		322
Oil Cake "	3,020			3,020
do. lbs.	126,000			126,000
Paint "		15,752		15,752
Pig Iron "	2,832,000	273,334	114,200	3,219,534
Plaster and stuc. "			335,168	335,168
Pork, bbls.	27,814	348	1,647	29,809
Pork in hog, lbs.	26,000		194,916	220.916
Potatoes, bu.	878	92	35	1,005
Powder, lbs.		379,924		379,924
Posts, no.		51,566		51.566
Posts, cds.			1,374	1,374
Provisions, lbs.	923,000	700		923,700
Rags "	2,500			2,500
Railroad Iron "		19361,766		19,361,766
R. R. furnish's "	40,000		3,514	43,514

Description.	*Lake.*	*Canal.*	*Railroad.*	*Total.*
Rosin lbs.		15,200		15,200
Rope "	40,000			40,000
Rye, bu.	81,594		568	82,162
Saleratus, lbs.	2,200	74,584		76,784
Salt, bbls.	1,242	24,404	12,174	37,920
Salt in bags, lbs.		259,515		259,515
Shingles, no.		50900,300	20542250	71,442,550
do. bolts, cds.		290		290
Soap, lbs.		2,058		2,058
Steel "		47,313		47,313
Stone, cds.	26			26
do. lbs.	240,000		373,112	613,112
do. dressed		160		160
Stoves and Hardware		2,444,382	11,849	2,456,231
Sugar		40,940		40,940
Staves, no.		240,708		240,708
Tallow, lbs.	538,900	1,569		540,469
Tar, Pitch & Turpentine		13,585		13,685
Timber, ft.		218,852		218,852
Tobacco, hhds.	20			20
do. boxes	125			125
do. lbs.		82,413		82,413
Varnish		4,998		4,998
Vinegar, bbls.		280		280
Water lime "	106	57		163
Wheat, bu.	1,206,163	1,618	102,267	1,310,048
White lead, lbs.		11,625		11,625
Wooden ware "		2,292		2,292
Wool "	953,100	444	74,149	1,027,693
Other articles not enumerated lbs.		459,160		459,160
LIVE STOCK.				
Cattle	117		2,540	2,657
Horses	2		170	172
Hogs	1,548		2,793	4,341
Sheep	36		138	174

FLOUR. — The shipments of flour from Chicago by lake for a series of years were as follows:

1844	bbls. 6,320	1849	51,309
1845	13,752	1850	100,871
1846	28,045	1851	72,406
1847	32,538	1852	61,196
1848	45,200	1853	70,984

Shipments of Flour for 1853:

Lake	70,984
Canal	1,107

Galena Railroad	445
Eastern Railroads	666
Illinois Central Railroad	988
Total	74,190

The prices of Flour on the first of each month for the years 1851–2–3, were as follows. The lowest figures are for common country spring wheat brands, and the higher for best city mills :

	1851.		1852.		1853.	
January	$2.75	@4.50	$2.25	@4.00	$3.50	@5.00
February	2.75	4.50	2.25	4.00	4.00	5.00
March	3.00	5.00	2.50	4.25	3.50	4.75
April	3.00	4.50	2.25	4.00	3.25	4.50
May	3.00	4.25	2.25	4.00	3.50	4.75
June	3.00	4.25	3.00	4.25	3.50	4.75
July	3.00	4.25	2.25	4.00	3.50	4.75
August	2.25	4.25	2.50	4.00	3.75	4.75
September	2.25	4.25	2.50	4.00	3.50	5.00
October	2.25	3.75	2.75	4.75	5.25	6.25
November	2.25	3.75	2 75	4.75	4.75	5.75
December	2.25	3.75	3.25	4.75	4.50	5.50

WHEAT. — Shipments of Wheat from Chicago, by Lake, for several years, are as follows :

1842	586,907	1848	2,160,000
1843	688,967	1849	1,936,264
1844	891,894	1850	883,644
1845	946,860	1851	437,660
1846	1,459,594	1852	635,496
1847	1,974,304	1853	1,206,163

The annexed table shows the price of Wheat in this market on the first of each month for the years 1852 and 1853 :

	Spring—1852	—Winter.	Spring—1853	—Winter..
January	31–42	50–65	70–76	78–86
February	37–45	50–70	65–66	75–85
March	35–45	60 -72	60–70	70–85
April	34–40	60–70	55–65	70–80
May	34–40	62–72	60–66	80–90
June	34–40	68–76	66–79	73–90
July	37–39	68–76	66–75	78–90
August	40–43	65–70	60–82	80–96
September	44–50	69–75	65–82	80–90
October	48–56	60–72	94–100	100–113
November	55–60	66–75	85–90	95–105
December	56–60	70–80	85–90	95–100

CORN. — The shipments of Corn from Chicago for a series of years by lake are as follows :

1847	67,315	1851	3,331,317
1848	550,460	1852	2,757,011
1849	644,848	1853	2,729,552
1850	262,013		

The following shows the price of Corn on the first day of each month for the past two years:

	1852.	1853.
January	26–38	39–55
February	31 34	38 41
March	33 34	40 45
April	33 34	36 40
May	33 34	40 46
June	36 37	45 50
July	32 33	47 50
August	42 43	58 65
September	50 52	56 60
October	50 53	54 55
November	48 50	48 50
December	56 58	47 48

Hogs. — A comparative statement of the business of the past three years, shows the following result:

	Hogs cut.	Av. weight.	Total weight.
1851–2	22,036	238½	5,247,278
1852–3	48,156	211½	10,192,972
1853–4	52,849	249½	13,188,815

The following is a statement of the number of hogs received during the past season, and the sources from which they came:

Chicago and Galena U. R. R.	45,779
Chicago and Rock Island R. R.	14,225
Illinois Central R. R.	1,242
Michigan Central R. R.	387
By teams and on foot to be slaughtered in city	12,347
Total	73,980

The hogs received here were disposed of as follows:

Packed in city	52,849
Shipped east by Mich. Cen. R. R.	9,782
" " " Southern R. R.	846
Sold in city	10,503
Total	73,980

The following statement exhibits the price of Mess Pork on the first of each month for the past two years:

	1852.	1853.
January	$13 00@14 00	$16 00@16 50
February	12 00 13 00	16 30
March	13 00 13 50	16 00

	1852.		1853.	
April	14 00	14 50	15 00	
May	14 00	14 50	15 00	16 00
June	14 00	14 50	15 50	
July	16 00	17 00	16 00	
August	18 00	10 00	15 00	15 00
September	18 00	18 75	15 00	17 00
October	20 00		15 00	
November	19 00		15 00	15 75
December	16 00	16 50	15 00	15 50

The following table shows the range of prices for dressed hogs, per 100 lbs., from light to heavy, on the first and fifteenth of the four packing months:

November 1st	$5 00	@——	January 15th	$4 00	@4 15
November 15th	5 00	5 50	February 1st	4 25	4 70
December 1st	4 88	5 25	February 15th	4 44	5 00
December 15th	3 50	4 00	March 1st	4 50	4 75
January 1st	3 25	4 00			

Beef. — The largest number packed in 1853 by one house was 4,700 head; the smallest 250 head. The total number packed by all parties is 25,435 head, showing an increase over last year of only 772 head.

The number of barrels of beef packed in 1853 is 57,500.

The average weight of cattle packed here last year exceeds that of the preceding by 21 lbs. per head. In 1852 the average was 542 lbs. per head; in 1853 it was 563 lbs.

The number of barrels of tallow rendered was 5,283, which at an average of 250 lbs. per bbl., gives a total of 1,350,750 lbs. The average weight of the hides was a fraction under 80 lbs. each, giving the total weight 2,026,321 lbs.

The barrels required are manufactured in this city, and also in the neighbouring States, Wisconsin, Indiana and Michigan. They were quite plenty during the season, and were furnished in large quantities at $1.00. The number of men employed in this business is between five and six hundred.

Commencing with the packing season, prices at the first of each month until the close of the year, for the last three years, were as follows:

	1851.		1852.		1853.	
September	$3 00	@3 75	$3 00	@4 25	$4 75	@5 50
October	3 00	4 00	4 00	4 75	5 00	6 00
November	3 00	3 50	4 00	4 75	5 00	6 00
December	3 00	3 75	3 75	4 50	5 00	5 75

The following calculation, based upon the facts already adduced, presents the value of the products which arise from this business.

The price assigned to each article was its market value at the close of the season:

Beef, 57,500 bbls. at $10.50 per bbl	$603,750 00
Tallow, 1,350,750 lbs. at 10½c. per lb.	143,828 75
Hides, 2,026,321 lbs. at 5¼c. per lb.	106,381 85
Offal, 25,435 head at 55c.	13,989 25
Total	$865,949 85
Total in 1852	650,621 00
Increase	$215,328 85

LUMBER.—The following table shows the amount of lumber received in this market for the last seven years:

	Lumber.	Shingles.	Lath.
1847	32,118,225	12,148,500	5,655,700
1848	60,009,250	20,050,000	10,025,109
1849	73,259,553	39,057,750	19,281,733
1850	100,364,779	55,423,750	19,809,700
1851	125,056,437	60,838,250	27,583,475
1852	147,816,232	77,080,500	19,759,670
1853	202,101,098	93,483,784	39,133,116

WOOL. — The following shows the prices ruling in this market for the last three years, the range being from the poorest to the best qualities:

	1851.	1852.	1853.
June	25@40	18@29	40@45
July	28 40	25 36	38 50
August	28 35	25 37½	35 45

The following is a statement of the shipments for twelve years, ending in 1853:

1842, lbs	1,500	1848 lbs	500,000
1843,	22,050	1849	520,242
1844,	96,635	1850	913,632
1845,	216,616	1851	1,088,553
1846,	281,222	1852	920,113
1847,	411,888	1853	953,100

Trade between St. Louis and Arkansas.

We copy the following article from the *Southwest Independent* with a hope that it may induce the merchants and manufacturers of St. Louis to inquire into the nature and value of the Arkansas trade.

We are persuaded that if a few leading merchants of Arkansas would visit St. Louis, that an arrangement might be made to establish a trade between St. Louis and the Arkansas river, which would prove profitable and highly satisfactory to all parties, and we trust that our friend of the "Southwest Independent" will urge this suggestion upon the consideration of his readers.

"St. Louis Trade with North Arkansas.—St. Louis as a point for the trade of our merchants in assuming the importance that belong to the city. Being destined to become certainly the first city in the Mississippi Valley, and the third city in America, she offers and will offer to the purchaser of manufactures and foreign goods advantages that no other city in the valley will be able to present.

Railways are speedily annihilating land-barriers, and by her system of Railroads, St. Louis will soon possess all the conveniences and appliances of commerce that she would have were she situated upon the ocean shore. In a few years she will directly import from the old world all the foreign goods consumed in the Valley, and be able to sell at as favorable rates as New York.

In a very short time St. Louis will be by the South-West Pacific Railroad within fifty miles of this town, and by the Border Road at our very doors. To join our trade were our merchants to make any advances, St. Louis would give them "bargains" that would certainly cause goods to be as cheaply purchased there, with the carriage and insurance between the two cities, as in New York, and assuredly underbid Cincinnati. Besides, St. Louis is a city free from fanaticism, and possesses by far more of the customs and manners of the South-west. Merchants from that section could purchase in a more congenial latitude.

Interest will create interest, and all this region is embraced in the Commercial Basin of which St. Louis is the great centre. To secure the trade of this Basin St. Louis manufacturers would do "good work." That they "slight" their work in Cincinnati is notorious. Perhaps they think in that porky city that any manufacture is good enough for slave-holding countries.

Altho' the St. Louis system of Roads is not yet completed, it will be in at least five years. In that interim, if our merchants would run steamboats direct to St. Louis from Van Buren and Fort Smith, and open trade and intercourse with that city, the step would greatly and profitably bear upon our commercial prosperity, and bring an immense influence to aid our own projected railways."

LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

From the French of Madame De Stael.

German Philosophy.

Continued from page 69.

One must habituate himself to the practice of the system of reasoning pursued in the science of geometry, in order to understand metaphysics thoroughly. In this science, as in that of calculation, if the least link of reason is broken, the whole chain which leads to the result is destroyed. Metaphysical arguments are more abstract and not less precise than those of mathematics, and moreover their object is vague. In metaphysics, it is necessary to reconcile two of the most antagonistic faculties, imagination and calculation: it is in the requisition of measuring the cloud of the mind with the same accuracy as a piece of ground; and there is no study which demands such an extraordinary concentration of attention; nevertheless in questions of the most exalted order, there is a point of view which the whole world can take, and it is this which I propose to seize at present.

One day I inquired of Fichte, whose head is among those of the strongest thinkers of Germany, if he could not state to me the principles of his morality, rather than those of his metaphysics? —The one depends upon the other, he replied.—And this answer was sensibly profound: it includes every motive of interest which one can possibly have in philosophy.

We are accustomed to consider it as destructive of all the feelings of the heart; were it really so, it would then be the positive enemy of mankind; but this is not the case with the doctrine of Plato, nor with that of the Germans; they regard feeling as an act, as the primitive act of the soul, and philosophic reason as destined only to find out what the act signifies.

The enigma of the universe has been the object of the fruitless meditations of a great number of men, worthy of exalted admiration, since they felt themselves called to something better than this world. Spirits of a high lineage wander incessantly around the abyss of boundless thoughts; but nevertheless it becomes necessary to leave this sphere, for the mind vainly fatigues itself in these efforts to scale the walls of heaven.

The origin of thought has occupied the attention of all true philosophers. Are there two natures in man? If there be but one, is it soul or matter? If there be two, do the ideas come by the senses, or do they grow spontaneously in our soul, or indeed are they a combination of the action of exterior objects upon us and of the interior powers which we possess?

With these three questions, which have divided the philosophic world throughout all time, is involved the examination which affects virtue most directly: and the point of investigation is whether fate or free will determines the resolutions of men.

Among the ancients, fate proceeded from the will of the Gods; among the moderns, we attribute it to the course of things. Fate, among the ancients, was placed under the jurisdiction of free will, for the will of man struggled against events that occurred, and the moral resistance was invincible; the fatalism of the moderns, on the contrary, necessarily destroys confidence in free will; if circumstances make us what we are, then we are unable to resist their control; if exterior objects are the cause of everything which occurs in our soul, what independent thought can free us from their influence? The fate which descended from heaven filled the soul with a holy horror, while that which binds us to the earth produces only self degradation. What is the use of all these questions, may one ask? What is the use of anything else? may one answer. For what is there more important for man, than to know if he really incurs responsibility for his actions, and what relation the power of his will sustains towards the empire of surrounding circumstances? What would conscience be, if only our habits gave it birth, if it were nothing but the product of colors, of sounds, of perfumes, in fine of the circumstances of every kind with which we have been surrounded during our infancy?

Metaphysics, which is applied to discover what is the source of our ideas, produces a powerful influence, by its operations, on the nature and the force of our will; that metaphysics is at the same time the highest and the most necessary of all our species of knowledge; and the partisans of supreme utility, of moral utility, cannot treat it as an object of disdain.

Dependence of Mind upon Matter.

BY PIERCE C. GRACE, ESQ.

"The prejudice which is commonly entertained against metaphysical speculations," says Dugald Stewart, "seems to arise chiefly from two causes: first from an apprehension that the subjects about which they are employed, are placed beyond the reach of the human faculties; and secondly from a belief that these subjects have no relation to the business of life."

At the period when this remark was written, these objections to metaphysical disquisitions were urged with much greater force, because with more justness, than at the present day. For at that time, and for ages previous, the history of metaphysics, with but a few brilliant exceptions, presented a sad commentary on the vanity of the human intellect. The thousand wild and impracticable systems and theories — those gloomy monuments of ruined thought and prostituted genius—the senseless disputations of visionary theorists and quibbling schoolmen — the idealists and the materialists—the egoists and the systematic doubters—the sneering deist—the mouthing pantheist, and the cold-blooded atheist, together with a legion of other clashing sects, a hideous progeny of the human mind conceived and begotten in the chaotic realms of baseless theory and wild conjecture, did indeed present plausible grounds for the objections alluded to. Men had wandered from the true path of philosophical inquiry which, if faithfully followed, will present nothing which the human powers cannot comprehend, and will lead to the happiest results in extending the pleasures, softening the cares, and defining the duties of man as a physical, intellectual, social and moral being. This truth has gained footing among the lovers of science. Psychologists and philosophers in general have become more rational in their investigations; they wander less from known facts, and, impressed with an humbler sense of their limited powers, they have, in a great measure, contented themselves in pursuing that path in which, if the sphere of their operations is more circumscribed, their searches for truth are more certain, and the benefits conferred on their fellow-men of a more lasting duration.

Thus, since the time when Mr. Stewart favored the world with his admirable speculations on the mind, men have been enabled to make rapid advances towards a more intimate acquaintance with the workings of that mysterious and subtle principle, and far from turning with distaste from the study, they have even sought it with avidity. For, as the student progresses the shadowy glimpses he is allowed to catch of that clouded world which lies beyond the limits of human ken—the gorgeous superstructure of divine omnipotence presented in the existence and development of the human mind; its admirable adaptation to the wants, situation and destiny

of man, and the feeling of lordly superiority which arises in his bosom when he contemplates the dignified position allotted to him among the creations of God, render him eager in the pursuit of that sublime branch of knowledge which gives life and action to the nobler feelings of his nature, and whilst confirming his belief in the existence of an omniscient providence, gives him the fond assurance that he is destined for immortality. Science, properly so called, has indeed burst in glory through the dark mists of metaphysical anarchy and error, and now, hand in hand with christianity, holds on its brilliant course, a beacon light to the humble student who fain would read the burning characters inscribed upon the tablets of everlasting truth.

Nevertheless, among the mass of men, the prejudice to which Mr. Stewart alludes as existing in his time, still lingers. There are still those who as an excuse for their indolence or their ignorance urge as objections to such a study, that the subjects discussed are beyond the reach of the human faculties, and that they have no connection with the concerns of life. But if such apologists would *properly* exert the powers they possess, they would find that their faculties have a wider and a more useful range, and the *legitimate* study of their own nature a more intimate connection with the concerns of life than they would fain profess to believe.

However, the course marked out in the conduct of the subject to which I desire to draw attention, will not, I trust, be subject to the objections alluded to. It is far from my intention to speculate or to theorize. Nice metaphysical distinctions, useless and fancy built visions, and futile quibbles upon the essence of mind and matter, will not enter the limits of this essay. It is my simple purpose, so far as known facts will allow me, to present a few rambling thoughts upon the manner in which the human mind may be considered dependent upon matter; how far and to what end that dependence exists, and the pleasures extended to man in consequence of its existence.

Without, then, attempting to prove the existence of mind and matter, or to descant on the distinction between them, I shall proceed upon the presumption that it is taken for granted, not only that mind and matter exist, but also that they exist separately and totally distinct in their natures, holding so far as it is possible for man to perceive, no quality in common: the one existing in a form palpable to the senses, presenting not only length, breadth, weight, figure, colour and divisibility, but also certain attributes, if I may be allowed the expression, such as motion, sound, space, odor, and the like: the other, impalpable to the senses and destitute of any of the properties by which we know matter, existing as an invisible, undefinable, intelligent, indivisible, and immortal principle.

It has been happily and forcibly hinted by an ancient writer,* that the brilliant destiny of man, and the dignified position and

* Sallust.

glorious prerogatives which the creator intended he should hold and exercise among the manifestations of his omnipotence, are evidenced in his physical formation; that whilst all other animals are made with their heads and bodies bent towards the ground, evincing that their lives are dedicated to the gross, sordid, and mutable things of earth; man stands erect among them, his head and front and form elevated *above* the earth, he spurns beneath him, and his whole appearance bespeaking his pre-eminence in the scale of being and the lofty destiny that awaits him. The force with which this thought strikes us is increased, when we consider the high source whence it is derived; but the physical formation and upright attitude of man as a mere animal produced as an evidence of his high destiny, fades away and is lost in the brilliant testimony which a consideration of his mind in connection with the material world, adduces. In fact, if we are to search for any evidence it is to this we are ultimately driven. For where, independent of that mind, will we find in man an evidence of his superiority among the Creator's works? Consider for a moment, what would be the condition of man as a mere animal, as a mere mechanical thing of organized and animated matter? Endeavour to picture for a moment a human form, bereft of mind; imagine it if you will in point of fine proportion, muscular strength, and capability of action, all that the sculptor in his brightest dreams has ever imagined as perfect in a human body. Give to this body animal life and animal instincts, such as exist in the brute creation, and thus fashioned, turn it out to wander on the broad world, to follow the instincts and gratify the appetites of the brute. What, I ask you, would become of this being? Guided alone by the instincts we have given him, and thrown entirely upon the mere powers of his animal frame, his physical conformation and his upright attitude would avail him not. Nay; they would prove a detriment to his existence, for they would render him less capable of battling for his life; they would render him comparatively powerless in obtaining necessary nutriment, and leave him an open and easy prey for superior brute force. Such a being, despite his noble proportions, would sink immeasurably on the scale of creation, and the whole animal world where was implanted superior muscular strength, larger physical proportion, or more agility in action, would rise far above him, and occupy a more elevated and important rank in nature. Helpless, wretched, and short-lived indeed would be the miserable being we have attempted to imagine! Where would be that power before which alone the whole brute creation quails; before which the royal lion and the vengeful tiger crouch in suppliant dread! Where that magic spell by the potency of which the great granaries of nature are opened and made to pour forth their tributes for the nourishment of man! Where the glorified intelligence which has reduced the ocean into slavery, and smiles in calmness amidst the toss of its big and angry billows, which wrestles

with and conquers the rush of the dread tornado, and penetrates the bowels of the earth, and plays with the lightning in its awful course, and sits in judgment among the stars! Annihilate that potent and glorious principle, and what a shattered ruin of divine omnipotence would the material world present! Brute man hunted into caves and dens, unable to withstand the superior powers of the animals around him, would wither away from creation, and this vast globe, tremendous and grand as is its structure, would tumble through the realms of space, a wreck, a loathsome den of roving and wrangling beasts, a huge collection of useless matter, without object or design, unworthy the power and the wisdom of the God who formed it! And yet, that intelligence which so ennobles man, which places in his hands the sceptre of earthly power and pre-eminence among the vast works of the Creator, is in its operations so intimately connected with, and in a certain degree so dependent upon matter, that not only is it impossible for the nature of that connection to be seen, but many who have wasted their energies in the fruitless attempt to discover it, have been deluded into the fatal error that mind and matter are one and the same.

The human mind is that principle in man which is capable of thinking, willing, remembering, and reasoning. In its state of corporeal imprisonment, if I may so express myself, it is dependent on matter for the development of its faculties. All our ideas are derived through the operation of the external world upon our senses, and the operations of the mind upon the knowlege it thus requires. The first step which is taken in awakening the mind, and calling its powers into action, is *sensation*, which is peculiarly a consequence of animal and material organization. Sensation is instantaneously succeeded by *perception* and *consciousness*, which may in a measure be deemed co-existent, and these are followed by *reflection*, which is an operation of the mind compounded of *consciousness*, *memory* and *comparison*. *Sensation* is the effect produced upon an animated body of matter, by its coming in contact with, or approaching within the influence of material matter surrounding it. *Perception* may be termed the dawning of intellect, for following immediately upon sensation, it is the rousing effort of the mind brought by sensation to a knowledge of the existence of the object acting on the senses. *Consciousness* is a faculty by which we obtain a knowledge of the mental processes brought into action by sensation, and is in fact merely the mental act of attention to what is passing in the mind at the time. *Reflection* is a compound operation of the mind embracing numerous mental processes, such as a consciousness of existing mental actions, a memory of former sensations and perceptions, and former mental processes, and the power of comparing present sensations and perceptions with those that are past, of analyzing and drawing distinctions, arranging and separating subjects, and forming judgments and conclusions from them.

Sensation, *perception*, *consciousness*, and *reflection* are the four grand functions brought into action by matter in the acquisition of human knowledge. Consequently, when metaphysicians name "*experience*" as the source whence all our knowledge is derived, nothing more is meant than the constant repetition of the process of sensation, perception, consciousness and reflection. Such is the mode exhibited in the acquisition of human knowledge, and its results show, when once the earthly veil, by the mysterious consequence of a contact with matter, is torn from the spirit, how rapid are the incomprehensible workings of that mysterious principle, and how triumphantly it exercises its lordly sway over the material world upon which it was once dependent for its development.

It will be remembered that the definition I give of the human mind, is, that it is the principle in man which is *capable* of thought, will, memory, and reason; and that this mind is dependent upon matter for the *development* of these capabilities. I am far from advocating the doctrine that the mind *owes* the faculties it possesses to an organization of matter. Such an admission would lead to inextricable absurdity.

But if the human mind does not owe these faculties to an organization of matter, it must possess them independently of matter? Assuredly it does. Then, it may be said, that the conclusion will inevitably be that the mind acts and exerts these faculties independently of any medium connecting it with the external world. This by no means follows. The mind with all its glorious powers exists independently of matter; but those powers are not *developed* for the purposes for which it is imprisoned in the corporeal frame of man until a certain process of material organization takes place, and calls them into action. The frozen river, to the human eye, lies still, inert and motionless, but when the sun pours his heated radiance upon its frigid bosom, the ice chains are broken, and the freed waters foaming in eddying currents roll away, fertilizing the earth far and near, and increasing in breadth and depth and power, are at last engulfed in the vastness of the ocean. The steam engine, with all its pent up powers in full existence, lies inactive and motionless; the engineer touches a spring, and in an instant every part of that complicated machinery is brought into play, and the huge vessel, despite of wind or current, moves away in majesty beneath the wonderful impulse of that power thus suddenly and simply developed;—the harp attuned to melody gives forth no sounds of harmony, till touched by the master hand; and the rose bud, with its beauties all enclosed and imprisoned, blooms not in the garden until the moment arrives when, as though by enchantment, it expands its beautiful leaflets, reveals its delicate colours, scents the air with its delightful fragrance, and blushes forth in full and radiant loveliness. So with the human mind. The powers it possesses are independent of the organization which

merely developes them. God, for his own wise purposes, has not permitted this mind which he has embedded in the nature of man, to exert its powers, except in the manner best conducive to the grand design he contemplated when he created the universe. And in no case are these powers developed to the full extent of their capability during human life. For we are assured that we know nothing, we comprehend nothing, and we feel we can know nothing in comparison with that which this same mind is hereafter destined to comprehend. The ignorance of the wisest and most learned of mankind immeasurably transcends his knowledge, and renders it, by contrast, trifling and insignificant. The abstruse and wayward metaphysician, filled with the pompous idea of his own learning, can with truth exclaim in the words of Dr. Ried: "Admired Philosophy! Daughter of light! Parent of wisdom and knowledge! if thou art she, surely thou hast not yet risen upon the human mind, nor blest us with more of thy rays than are sufficient to shed a darkness visible upon the human faculties, and to disturb the repose and security which happier mortals enjoy who never approached thine altar nor felt thine influence.!"

There are certain expressions in common use, which would seem to attribute infirmities to mind which we know to exist in matter, and to imply that it possesses a nearer relation to matter than is consistent with our convictions of its spirituality. For instance, the expression "an unsound mind," a "diseased mind," a "weak mind," and the like. Now if these expressions are intended to convey a literal meaning, they are incorrect. Such a thing as an unsound, diseased, weak or disordered mind, can have no existence. The mind is purely spiritual and immortal; it is totally distinct in its nature from matter, and possessing no qualities in common with matter, it cannot in itself possess the infirmities of material substances. If the fact were proved, that the human mind could be diseased, or weak, or unsound, then, indeed, would the hopes of the christian be crushed; then, indeed, would religion seem a mockery, and the idea of immortality the base coinage of designing priests, issued to delude and enslave the simple and the vulgar. But these expressions can properly mean nothing more than an imperfectly *developed* mind, or a mind acted upon by a diseased, imperfect or weak material organization. The unsoundness, the disease, or weakness spoken of rests not in the mind, but in the material organization or channels upon which the mind is dependent for the development of its faculties. Each individual sense may be diseased or imperfect, or the brain which may be termed the grand reservoir, through which flow all the sensations from the separate senses of man to the mind, may be diseased, and consequently unable to perform the healthy functions for which it is intended; or the brain may be weak or deformed, and consequently making but slight impression upon the mind, the powers of that principle will be but proportionally developed; or, again, the brain

may be almost totally unfit for the performance of its functions, as in the case of the idiot, and make scarcely no impression upon the mind. But that the mind is capable of being unsound in itself, or that it can be deprived of its powers, the voice of nature, the voice of religion, and the hope of immortality, will not allow the thought to be harboured for an instant. The mind of the veriest idiot, that ever made the heart sick with his senseless jargon, is as pure, as powerful, and as worthy of immortality as that of the proudest philosopher who has ever thought. The only difference between them is, that the material organization of the one is better calculated to develope the powers of the mind than that of the other. Let not then the idiot be despised, for he has within him an *immortal principle* which, when the film of humanity that obscures it shall have been removed, will be enabled to comprehend mysteries which the proudest intellectual genius of the age attempts in vain to embrace within the narrow limits of his human vision.

The human mind, then, not only possesses powers which are essentially different from any matter or the result of any material organization which it is impossible for us to conceive of, but it possesses these powers *independently of matter*. The mind, therefore, is dependent upon matter only for the development of these powers. Thus far, and only thus far, the dependence exists, and it exists only for the purposes designed by the Creator when he connected corruptibility with incorruptibility, and married the immortal principle to mortality! He placed man, for a time, to act in a narrow sphere, and made the grand intelligence capable of being developed during that time only so far as was suited to that narrow sphere and the great purposes of creation. The consequence is, we know nothing of mind except as it is thus developed. We know nothing of it, and can know nothing of it, except through the exercise of these partially developed faculties. Of its essence we are wofully ignorant. In all ages the question: "What is it?" has been asked. Aristotle and the sages of eld, Solomon in the plenitude of his wisdom, the Pythagorian bewildered amidst the wild absurdities of Metempsychosis, the Platonist, the Stoic, and the Epicurian, Confucius standing in the twilight of his own genius amidst the darkness of the celestial empire, the Persian Ghubers pondering the rude fictions of the Zandavesta, the philosophers whose intellects glorified the Augustan age, the fathers of the church amidst the turmoil and gloom of the middle ages, Des Cartes toiling to dissipate his methodical doubt, the Mohammedan, the Brahmin, the Pantheist, the Egoist, the Deist and the Atheist, men of all nations and of all time, have endeavoured to solve this great problem of their own existence, but in vain! The solution is still sought, and men turn inward on themselves, and from the deep caverns of their own nature send up the question, but it is heeded not, a silence like that which slumbers with the dead is

the only response. That mysterious principle which guides us in the investigation of the physical world, which enables us to perceive, to reason upon, to analize and solve the great problems in the material universe, and which is ever active and ready to answer our calls for knowledge, is striken dum, and appears spell-bound and powerless when asked for its own nature and essence, and the unanswered question dies sadly away, like the breath of night through a sepulchre! The dread secret will never be revealed until the mind shall have broken from the bars of humanity, until time shall have died, and the material world shall have melted away in the radiance of immortality. And why should we wish to know that which Omnipotence for his own wise purposes has made us incapable of comprehending in this life? Let us rest content with the knowledge within our reach; let us work out our destiny with the means which are placed within the range of our faculties, and when we reach that barrier over which it is folly to step, and beyond which the deity has spread clouds and darkness impervious to human vision, let us bend down in awful submission, grateful for the favors already bestowed, and while in wonder we gaze upon the dark realms of divine mystery, let us rest content with the glad assurance that the film of human corruptibility will one day be removed from the mental vision, and reveal to its gaze all the glories and all the hidden wisdom of Him, who "maketh darkness his secret place, and whose pavilion round about Him are dark waters and thick clouds of the sky," who

> "Light Himself, in uncreated light
> Invested deep, dwells awfully retir'd
> From mortal eye or angel's purer ken!"

From the positions assumed and the views I have endeavoured to illustrate, it will be readily conceived how great must be the influence of the external world of matter in the development and formation of the intellectual character of man. But it exerts also an influence scarcely less powerful indirectly through the mind upon the character of man as a moral, social and physical being. From this partial dependence of the spiritual upon the material world, spring the moral feelings of our nature, the play and exercise of which make up the eventful history of human life. How rich and beautiful the theme which here presents itself to my mind! It is filled with wonders! But were I now to attempt to do more than to glance at this branch of my subject, I feel that it would prove unsatisfactory, if not irksome. In entering this world of "abstract feeling," food for reflection and room for deducing holy truths applicable to the conduct of human life, are presented in such rich abundance, that each individual feeling to be fairly considered would require a separate essay. Who can analyze the gush of thought and feeling which whelms the soul when the thinker ponders amidst the world of matter, the sublime and beautiful works of God!—the silent wood, the howling storm, the glorious

firmament, the tempest maddened ocean, or when he listens to the moan of the night wind, through the broken arches of some vast and ancient ruin?

If you would learn the extent of the influence which the material world exercises upon the thoughts and feelings of man, go out and gaze upon the universe; penetrate, alone, the depths of a wilderness where is heard no sound save that of the breeze, as in organ tones it swells upon the ear and dies away in the distance; go, stand upon the fields of Marathon or Platea where erst the battles of ancient liberty were fought; go, ponder amidst the vestiges of the empires which have been wrecked in the rush of ages, the ruined temple, the broken column, the crumbling arch, and the prostrate dome, darkling in their own desolation the last relics from the ravages of time—the silent ghosts of departed glory; go, where you will with the proper mind, and thoughts will arise and feelings will bubble up from the deep wells of the human heart so exquisite in their nature that feeble would be the attempt to describe them by words or to trace them to their mysterious sources.

In a social and physical point of view, the effects of this partial dependence of mind upon matter, are no less striking. Were I not compelled to be brief, I could here dwell upon the differences in the dispositions of men reared in different climates and in the midst of different material circumstances. I might oppose the plodding and phlegmatic German or Russian to the enthusiastic Italian, whose nature seems to have borrowed all the sunny richness of that clime where the sky is always radiant and the rose always in bloom. I might contrast the calculating and energetic Briton with the enervated and indolent Spaniard, and the mercurial native of sunny France or sweet Savoy, with the plain matter of fact Scotchman, whose nature presents as rugged a front as his country's bleak and barren hills. Again, I might direct attention to the spots where poetry and the arts have found a home, and where they have been neglected, and where philosophy has flourished, and where it is despised. Nay, even the different forms of government adapted to the different dispositions of men, might also be here displayed, and all dwelt upon as the evident effects of this mysterious principle of mental dependence upon matter. And here let me add, that we can justly attribute to the same source the free and independent spirit which has always characterized the Anglo-American race, and which carried the patriots of our revolution through their arduous struggle. For, separated from Europe, aloof from the spirit crushing influence of a domineering aristocracy, reared beneath the skies of a land the beauty and bold grandeur of whose scenery spoke to the mind a language of liberty, how could man live and not feel free, how breathe the air which slavery had never breathed! how tread the land which despotism had never defiled without feeling the noble influence in his breast. How could he behold liberty breathing even in the beasts around him, or follow

with his eye the soaring flight of the proud eagle of his native land, or gaze upon the untrammelled deer, as wild and free it bounded through the aisles of its native woods, without feeling his own heart leap in unison with the spirit that nerved its limbs!

My subject, rich with themes of beauty has already, I fear, carried me further than the patience of my readers will readily justify. I hasten to another branch of my subject.

Throughout all the works of the Creator, in each individual object in the Laboratory of nature, from the tiny mote which flutters away its little life in the sunbeam, up through all the grades of being animate and inanimate to the tremendous systems of worlds which roll above us, the enquirer is struck with awe in beholding the divine order, the magnificent evidence of Eternal wisdom, which breathes throughout the whole. Everything that exists in the material world, from the most infinitesimal atom, has a law to which it is obedient, which is essential to its existence, and which conducts it to the end for which it was created. There is a certain design contemplated in the existence of each individual part of creation, and so perfect is the adaptation of the object and the law of that object's existence to the end for which it is created, that nothing could be added by divine Omnipotence himself to render the end in view more certain. But as there is a design perceivable in the individual existence of each object, so also there must be found one great paramount design deducible from one great law which acts over the whole material world collectively, and to which the laws regulating the individual existences of all the various objects of which the physical universe is composed, are subservient. To express the thought in other words, the design in giving to one particle of matter a form of existence and a law different from another, must be found subservient to and tending to the production of the single, great and ultimate design and end of all contemplated by the Almighty on the morning of creation. God is essentially infinite wisdom. He can consequently do nothing without a design. As He is omniscient, He will do nothing more or less than is sufficient for the production of that design, and as He is omnipotent, He can do nothing for that purpose without success. Failure with Him is impossible. There was then a design when He called into existence the material world around and above us. There was then one grand *ultimatum* contemplated in the erection of the whole material frame including all its various grades and species of animate and inanimate matter. That divine power was prompted by a design proportionate to the means employed when he spread abroad as it were with a wave of his hand, the vast and glittering vault, evoking from chaos by his simple fiat in all their sublime order and magnificence the sun, the moon, the stars, and our vast globe. What was this design? Can an object worthy the means employed be found in the material world? Search throughout the magnificent structure; let your

mind's eye sweep the whole range of material existence, and name the favoured object for the benefit of which this stupendous effort of omnipotence was displayed. You search in vain. I have said that God as omniscient does nothing more or less than is sufficient for the production of a design he contemplates. But the whole material frame, even the corporeal frame of man, was made and in existence, and yet there was something wanting to complete the whole, for the Creator added something more without which the whole universe he had called into existence, would have been incapable of producing the end he contemplated.

He breathed into man the spirit! In that spirit and its connection with the material organization of the human body is hidden the grand design to which all things else must be subservient. Why the creator bound down the powers of the mind to the narrow range it is allowed in human life, why he did not at once render man perfect, and give to the intelligence within him a full and unrestricted exercise of its faculties, or in other words, why he made the mind dependent upon matter for the development of its capabilities, are questions not to be answered by man. For who will attempt the wisdom of an infinite intelligence? Who can fathom the designs of an inscrutible Providence; who with finite capabilities can reach the views or grasp the wisdom of infinity! Let the questions remain unanswered! That man is a being intended by God to be pre-eminent among his works, that the whole material world is intended to subserve His design in the destiny of man, and that the human mind for this same purpose is, while in its corporeal imprisonment, dependent to a certain extent upon the physical world, can be deduced from reason, and are truths built upon facts evidenced in human life. They are, consequently, the legitimate objects of philosophical enquiry. But when we attempt to penetrate beyond, we are lost in a darkness relieved by no ray, and bewildered in the intricate mazes of endless doubt and confusion. Then, to borrow the language of Thompson,

> Let no presuming impious railer tax
> Creative wisdom, as if ought were form'd
> In vain, or not for admirable ends:
> Shall little haughty ignorance pronounce
> His works unwise, of which the smallest part
> Exceeds the narrow vision of her mind?
> As if upon a full proportioned dome
> On swelling columns heaved, the pride of art,
> A critic fly, whose feeble ray scarce spreads
> An inch around, with blind presumption bold
> Should dare to tax the structure of the whole!
> And lives the man whose universal eye
> Has swept the unbounded scheme of things
> Marked their dependence so, and firm accord
> As with unfaltering accent to conclude
> That this availeth naught! Has any seen
> The mighty chain of beings lessening down
> From infinite perfection to the brink
> Of dreary nothing, desolate abyss!
> From which astonished thought, recoiling turns?

'Til then, let zealous praise ascend
And hymns of holy wonder to that power
Whose wisdom shines as lovely on our minds
As on our eyes his servant sun!"

I did not intend, nor indeed have I attempted to do more than to give a very faint glimpse of the magnificence of this subject. I am aware that the intimate relation which exists between mind and matter, while the former is imprisoned in the human body, has induced many to contend that the annihilation of matter would produce an annihilation of mind. But, in concluding these remarks, I must once more enter my protest against a doctrine so revolting to the christian, so repugnant to human reason, so destructive of the dearest hopes of mankind, so utterly inconsistent with the revealed declarations of divine truth. The purest diamond is dimmed by the dross of earth. But its brilliant qualities are only obscured, for when the clay in the midst of which it was embedded, has been rubbed away, it shines forth in dazzling splendor to glitter upon the anointed brow of royalty! Be assured, the *mental* diamond is only tarnished and obscured by the dull matter which surrounds it, and when death shall have plucked the rich jewel from the dross of humanity, it will shine forth in all its original and undimmed brightness, and too pure and brilliant for earthly use, it will be fit only to radiate forever in the blaze of heaven! That the mind will survive the destruction of its earthly tenement, and escape unscathed through the flames which will light the funeral pyre of the material world is, indeed, the fond assurance of God himself. Else why these continued aspirations? Why this perpetual upward tendency of the soul? Why this restlessness of the human spirit? Why this endless grasping after something that we have not — this constant wish to be something we are not? Why this "longing after immortality?"

Yes! despite the doubts and misgivings of men whose vices would fain drive them to crush the truth; despite the lame logic of wilful theorists; despite the sneer of the infidel and the scoff of the self-styled philosopher; the human mind, possessing God himself as an archetype is, indeed, as indestructible as truth, as undying as eternity. Yes, Mind of Man!

"The stars shall fade away, the sun himself
Grow dim with age, and nature sink in years,
But thou shalt flourish in immortal youth,
Unhurt amidst the war of elements,
The wreck of matter and the crush of worlds!"

NOTE. — The foregoing article was written several years ago, and orally delivered to the public in the form of a lecture before the St. Louis Lyceum. By request it has been re-delivered on

two or three occasions, and the oftener it was heard the more highly it was esteemed.

Desiring to aid in the development of the mental resources of the West, hand in hand with its material resources, we requested the gifted author to furnish a copy of the discourse in the form of an essay. He has kindly complied with our request; and we trust the article may be read and re-read with profit and pleasure; that an earnest movement may be made in the investigation and establishment of the deep, the broad, the high, the everlasting principles of spirit-stirring, spirit-progressing, spirit-aspiring truth; that the golden clouded mysticisms of German Philosophy may descend in copious showers on the dry fields of American sense; and that the soul of man be cultivated with the finest taste and purest feeling, until everywhere around may be seen the beautiful and sublime examples, and abundant fruits of magnanimity.

JUNIOR EDITOR.

DEATH OF A. B. CHAMBERS.

A Publicist has departed this life. On the 22d of May, 1854, MR. A. B. CHAMBERS, the public spirited editor of the Missouri Republican, breathed "the last of earth." His mind and heart were devoted to the prosperity of his city, his State and his country. With keen discernment he caught, and with masterly discipline he trained the spirit of the age; and although he moved prominently in the circle of party politics, he labored to promote more the prosperity of measures than of men. The farmers, the mechanics, the manufacturers, the merchants, and the railroad companies of the West owe him a debt of gratitude that never can be paid. Let the rising generation cultivate his public spirit, and reap the reward of internal satisfaction, derived from doing good service for the country. As an epitome of his early life we quote the following sketch by his successor:

(From the Missouri Republican of May 25th, 1854.)

MR. A. B. CHAMBERS.

The funeral of this gentleman took place yesterday, and his remains now repose in Bellefontaine Cemetery, in ground selected by himself, and in a burial place which he had written much to advance to its present state of beauty and of harmony with the purpose to which it is appropriated. It was a matter in which, indeed, he always exhibited a deep interest, and he never missed an opportunity of bringing Bellefontaine Cemetery into notice, and in this his exertions have been realized. And now that he is in the grave — that his friends have paid the last sad tribute to his memory — that he is beyond the reach of calumny and of misrepresentation, and the whole city, with only here and there an exception, has testified to the reality of the loss which has been experienced in his death—it may not be inappropriate to say something of his personal history.

Adam Black Chambers was born in Mercer, Mercer county, Pennsylvania, on the 9th January, 1808, and died on the 22d of May, 1854. It is not necessary to go back to his parentage, or his early education. He was, however, young when he first stepped upon the Western bank of the Mississippi, at St. Louis, without friends, without much money, without any of the advantages which belong to the present time; but he had energy and spirit and a determination to make his way in the world, and, like the best men in the land, he was successful. Mr. Chambers arrived in St. Louis in 1829, then a very different place from what it is now, but he remained here only three or four weeks. He soon after located in Pike county, in this State, where he commenced the practice of the law—having studied for that profession in Mercer, and received a license. If not immediately successful, it was not long before he became so, and he was employed in all the leading cases of the circuits which he then attended. He was appointed Circuit Attorney of that District, and in that capacity performed his duties with great fidelity.

His time was not, however, wholly engrossed by the law, and he engaged in politics, so far as to be elected a Representative from the county of Pike, at several times, and he took a prominent part in all matters of interest before the Legislature. He was even then a laborious man, and few measures of importance were adopted which did not receive his attentive consideration. He was a member of the Legislature which passed the act incorporating the present Bank of Missouri; devoted himself with great fidelity to the introduction of what he believed to be essential provisions for the protection of the stockholders as well as the State — but finally voted against it, when he supposed that it would fail, by the nature of its provisions, to accomplish this end. So, also, he par-

ticipated in all other measures of public concern, and was regarded as a liberal-minded and valuable member of the House.

At this period Mr. CHAMBERS had acquired very considerable character as a lawyer and a politician, in a section of the country which was rather prodigal of sound lawyers and acute politicians. He was able to cope with the best of them, and his success in both capacities was more marked than generally falls to the lot of young men. But he was not satisfied with this position. His ambition was not yet gratified. Possibly his connexion as editor of a weekly newspaper at Bowling Green, in Pike county, first turned his attention to a different theatre and a more extended field of action and usefulness. At all events, his negotiatons for the purchase of the "*Missouri Republican*" were consummated, and in July, 1837, he became the editor and joint proprietor of the establishment—a position which he retained to the time of his fatal illness. How he performed his multifarious duties — with what vigor, and energy, and judgment and tact—the people are here to bear testimony, and the paper itself is the best evidence. For seventeen years, his history is blended with that of the "*Republican*," and it needs neither illustration, nor apology, nor defence.

In all the troublous times of the city within that period — and they were many and remarkable, and such as no other city has experienced — we never knew his spirit to quail, or to give way under what seemed to be thick-coming and unending disasters. He was always at his post, in the gloomiest times — encouraging the timid, counselling the desperate, diligently unfolding the means of avoiding the effects of pecuniary, or other embarrassments — and never for a moment despairing of the glorious destiny of St. Louis. The Flood, the Fire, and the Pestilence, quickly following each other, had no terror to deter him from the performance of his obligations as a citizen and as a man; and those who served with him as members of the "Board of Public Health" in that fatal year when the cholera daily swept hundreds of people to the grave, and when the strongest-minded men gave way before the panic, will bear witness to the personal services rendered by him, day and night, throughout that frightful period.

Of his social relations—his hospitality—his attention to strangers, and his friendly intercourse with his fellow-citizens — it does not become us to speak. It was a source of great pleasure to him to be able to extend these courtesies and civilities, at all times, to the recipients of them.

Mr. CHAMBERS was married in 1833 to the lady who now mourns his death. He leaves three children—a son and two daughters—and two step-sons, to whom he has been as faithful as a father—to regret that they have so soon been deprived of his excellent counsel and fond care. They have the sympathy of the whole community in their affliction.

Harry to Julie.

Here is your glove,
I'd say my "*Dove*,"
Were not your eyes
More like the skies.

But dont believe,
Daughter of Eve,
You're to my sight
An "*Angel*" bright.

That fancy name
Is linked with fame,
Extravagance,
Of wild romance.

Romance has fled,
Vain names are dead,
You are forsooth
Woman in tru h.

A name most dear,
Turn to Shakspeare,
And there you'll see,
What 'raptured me.

Desdemona.
Cleopatra,
Miranda, and
Portia the grand.

Kind Cordelia,
Sweet Ophelia,
And your Love! Oh!
Wild Romeo.

Here first I loved,
My heart was moved,
By thy caress,
Sensitiveness!

As Romeo's love,
Envied the glove,
Of Juliet,
So do I, yet.

But then to touch,
Thy check, is much
More, than I dare
Hope, I declare.

I fear that thou
Will not allow
My lips the bliss,
To taste that kiss—

But I will press,
With sweet caress,
Against my cheek,
Your glove so sleek.

And let linger,
Each neat finger,
Around my neck.
Then I'll bedeck

It o'er and o'er,
With fifty score,
Of kisses bright—
Or tears of light—

Of joy—of what—
E'en I know not—
But something fine,
Almost divine,

Not terrestrial,
'Tis celestial;
Joy of a saint—
I almost faint,

With ecstacy,
So pleasantly,
Thus, thus, would I,
Willingly die.

Ah! why is this?
Have I amiss
Done any thing,
No. 'Tis feeling.

But with wildness,
Sprung from mildness,
And thoughts hazy,
I'm most crazy.

And all my Love!
About your *Glove*.
Believe, or not,
Me now; but what

I state, true is,
In Saint Louis,
Were Romeo,
He'd break his vow.

Would quick forget
His Juliet—
Would do as I
Will, till I die—
Swear—Miss Julie,
I'm Yours Truly

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ARTICLE I.

Free Banking.

THE period for which the Bank of the State of Missouri was chartered having nearly expired, the time has arrived when the people of this State must determine whether they will eschew banks altogether, continue the present system, or adopt one more democratic in principle and more useful in its operations. Notwithstanding the objections entertained by many to banks of issue, we are persuaded that a majority of our citizens will so far yield to the spirit of the times and to the peculiar state of things now existing as to continue, and, perhaps greatly extend, in some form or other, their Banking institutions. Regarding this result as certain, we deem it to be our duty as journalists to investigate the subject, and submit our views to the consideration of the public.

The first inquiry presented is, whether we shall continue our present system, and, if so, shall it be extended to the limit fixed by the constitution? Were it not for the inconvenience and probable derangement of business, which would be occasioned by closing the present bank and its branches, before another system could be put in full operation, we should say, without hesitation, let the system and charter expire together.

But, upon grounds of expediency, we conclude that it will be the better policy to extend the present charter to a period that will afford time to establish another and a better system. The observation and experience of many years have confirmed us in the opinion that, though banking corporations are capable of affording important facilities to certain branches of industry as well as to commerce, yet, it is better for States which have no banks to remain in that condition, and use the paper money of other communities,

than to adopt the system of banking which has hitherto prevailed in this country.

We know that many intelligent individuals regard the existence of banks of issue in other States as a strong argument in favor of establishing similar institutions in Missouri. These affirm that by allowing the bank notes of other States to circulate here, we become subject to the evils of a paper currency without the benefits derivable from bank accommodations. This is a plausable, but a superficial view of the subject. For it must be borne in mind that banks of issue being institutions of credit, a state of indebtedness is an inevitable consequence of their operations. Indeed their operations are marked by a peculiarity which distinguish them from all other business transactions, for a debt is created by both parties to every negotiation for a loan. And for every dollar of paper money issued by a bank, debts to the amount of two dollars are created; the borrower becoming indebted to the bank, and the bank to the bill-holder. Besides this, the business of the banking States is burthened with interest on all the bills put in circulation, except such as may have been loaned by the banks to non-residents. If business in the non-banking States be conducted on sound principle, the people acquire a paper currency by a legitimate exchange of commodities, and no indebtedness need be created in obtaining it. And, moreover, they enjoy the benefits of a circulating medium without paying interest upon the amount issued. These facts, with exemption from many other evils of banking which might be mentioned, are strong arguments against the establishment of banks in States where none exist.

It is an inherent quality of banks of issue that the establishment of one creates a demand for another, and the intensity of the demand always increasing in proportion to the degree of expansion, the system explodes in time as a necessary consequence.

Though we admit that banking corporations have been powerful agents in establishing manufactures and constructing public works in the older States of the Union, yet, holding, as we do, that their chartered privileges and practical operations infringe the sound principles of public economy, we cannot consent to the establishment and indefinite continuance of that system of banking in Missouri; and hence, should the time limiting the charter of the present Bank be extended, we should object to an enlargement of its capital.

Looking forward to the present state of things, we called the attention of the people of Missouri to the subject of free banking about four years ago ;* but unfortunately, as we think, for the State, it received little favor in the General Assembly. Had the measure been adopted by that body, at its session of 1850–1851, we are persuaded that little difficulty would have been experienced in prosecuting our works of public improvement; and, that now they would have been at least two years in advance of their present condition. Besides, it was a more favorable time then than now to introduce the system. There was then less demand for money; the system would have went into operation without delay; and absorbing our State and corporation securities as fast as they were issued, the interest accruing upon them would have been paid at home, and have constituted a basis for the issue of a home currency.

Though still the advocate of free banking, we confess that we do not feel the same degree of ardor in behalf of its introduction, that we did four years ago. We have long deprecated the policy of creating banks to relieve communities from pecuniary embarrassments ; and though the people of Missouri are comparatively free from embarrassment, there is a decided pressure in the money market giving rise to a desire for banks : a state of things which should always induce the legislator to act with great caution.

But doubts have been raised in respect to the power of the legislature to authorize individuals or associations to issue notes or bills for circulation. This is an important point; and one which should be carefully investigated. For were the legislature to adopt a system of banking, and serious doubts should exist in respect to the constitutionality of the act, such doubts would prevent capitalists from entering into business under the law until the point should be settled by judicial action. We understand that the opinions of legal gentlemen have been given upon this question, but have not seen or heard the reasons stated for their conclusions. To our view the subject is entirely free from doubt. The eigthth article of the constitution of Missouri provides that "the General Assembly may incorporate one banking company, and no more to be in operation at the same time.

The Bank to be incorporated may have any number of branches, not exceeding five, to be established by law; and not more than

* Vide Western Journal, Vol. IV, p. 211

one branch shall be established at any one session of the General Assembly. The capital stock of the bank to be incorparated shall never exceed five millions of dollars, at least one half of which shall be reserved for the use of the State."

It is clear that in adopting this article, the main and only object designed by the convention was to limit the power of the legislature in respect to banking corporations. The constitution contains no prohibition against private or individual banking; leaving that pursuit like all other useful employments free for all who might choose to embark in it.

The laws of other States regulating free banks, so far as we have observed them, are not of the nature of charters. They grant no franchise or privilege not enjoyed by every citizen of Missouri under the constitution before restrictions were imposed on private or individual banking by the legislature. Indeed, so far from possessing the qualities of a corporation, a system of free banking, such as has been adopted in other States, contains important restraints upon the rights reserved to individuals by the constitution of Missouri. Before individuals are allowed to issue and circulate bills as money, under the laws referred to, they are required to deposit with the Auditor or other officer of the State certain securities sufficient to redeem all the bills to be issued. But were the legislative restraints on individual banking removed, any citizen of Missouri would possess the right to make and put in circulation any amount of bills or notes that he could find a market for without making a specific appropriation for their redemption.

Hence we conclude that no alteration of the constitution is necessary to authorize the adoption of this modern system of finance. The whole subject has, in our opinion, been left to the control of the legislature to be regulated with a view to the best interests of the community.

Should the people of Missouri incline to adopt a system of free banking, many details affecting the success and usefulness of the measure must necessarily claim the attention of the legislature. The most important of these will be the nature and amount of the securities required to be pledged for the redemption of the bills to be issued.

Public confidence is a vital element in all banks of deposit and issue; and, besides, justice to the bill-holders as well as sound principles of public economy require that the security should be

ample and beyond all reasonable doubt, sufficient. New York, and perhaps some of the other States, have admitted a part of the securities to consist of mortgages upon real estate. To our view, there are several objections to such a policy: it is calculated to expand the system beyond the reasonable demands of the community, and to excite a speculative demand for real estate. It will also tend, in a greater or less degree, to concentrate the possession of real estate in the hands of capitalists, a state of things which should not be encouraged by legislation. The system of free banking is yet in its infancy, and though plausible in principle, no one can predict with certainty the result of its practical operations. Thus far it has been the means of rapidly multiplying banks, and of enlarging the volume of paper money in some, if not in all the States which have adopted it. This is a significant fact, and suggests the propriety of guarding against an unlimited expansion by rejecting all kinds of securities as a basis of operation, except the State and corporation obligations of our own State. These, we think, will afford sufficient means to develop the system as rapidly as a prudent economist could desire. It will be the means of retaining all our State and corporation bonds at home; and of bringing back those which have been sold abroad. But though we do not forget that on the other hand it will operate as a powerful incentive to increase the State debt; yet, we are persuaded that there is less danger to be apprehended from this cause than from allowing real estate or the bonds of other States to constitute any part of the securities to be pledged for the redemption of the bills.

In establishing a new system of banking, the question of prohibiting the issue of small bills will very naturally arise; and taking into view the practice of other States, and the difficulty of excluding the circulation of their small bills from our own, it is not easy to decide upon the policy which Missouri ought to adopt in respect to this point. The new coinage of silver and the large increase of gold are facts favorable to the policy of prohibiting the issue of small notes; but were the banks of Missouri denied the privilege of issuing bills of less denomination than twenty dollars, it would not materially affect the amount of metallic currency unless the circulation of the small bills of other States could be excluded. Many public economists whose opinions are entitled to much respect, are strongly opposed to bank issuess of a less denomination than ten dollars, and some even insist that twenty dol-

lars should be the limit. By reference to the history of those States which have been most addicted to banking, and which seem to have profited most by banking institutions, it will be found that a large portion of their issues of paper money consists of bills below the denomination of five dollars. From this it would seem that the practical results were rather in favor than against the use of small bills. Massachusetts, Ohio and Indiana are regarded as models of thrift and enterprise, they have all pursued the policy of issuing small bills, and we incline to the opinion that it is safer to follow their example in this respect, than to hazard the successful operation of our system, by experimenting upon a theory which older and more experienced communities have refused to adopt.

We confess that we have treated this subject under the influence of feelings opposed to banking corporations, but on the other hand we have endeavored to exercise a proper degree of caution in advocating the new system. Not that we doubt of its proving to be a most efficient agent in achieving our extensive works of public improvement, and also in developing the vast resources of the State; but, because we are not free from the apprehension that when once adopted it will be carried so far in time, as to develop evils which cannot be clearly foreseen at present.

Believing, however, that no other policy can be devised which will be as well calculated to sustain the great enterprises already undertaken by the people of Missouri, we hold it to be wisdom to use the most efficient and withal the safest means in our power to achieve an object which all men admit to be important, if not even essential, to the prosperity of the State.

Acting in good faith and in accordance with conclusions derived from facts carefully collected and impartially examined, we should adopt the policy which appears to be best calculated to promote the common welfare; and if time should prove that we have erred in judgment, it will be in the power of those upon whom the evils descend to correct our errors.

We have been impelled to advocate this system at the present time, because if carried into operation, we are persuaded that it will bring an amount of money capital to the State equal to the amount of State and corporation bonds that may be admitted as the basis of banking operations. This would make Missouri independent of the bond market abroad, and enable her citizens to prosecute their works of public improvement as speedily as prudent

and well-judging men could desire If these results should be realized, the interest on our railroad debt and the earnings of the roads will be retained at home, and instead of operating as a drain upon our circulation, will add to its volume through the agency of the banks.

Such consequences are so well calculated to strengthen the financial condition of the community, and develop the resources of the State, that the people of Missouri would be justly chargeable with a lack of enterprise, and even of moral courage, were they to reject a system of free banking lest evils should flow from it which cannot be foreseen.

Desiring that the merits of this subject should be fully discussed and understood by the citizens of Missouri, we respectfully commend its consideration to the press, to the candidates for the General Assembly, and to the people.

ARTICLE II.

Valley of the Ohio.

BY MANN BUTLER, ESQ.

Continued from page 19, vol. XII. No. 2.

CLARK'S NEGOTIATIONS WITH VIRGINIA FOR THE ILLINOIS CAMPAIGN. MARCH TO KASKASKIA, IN 1778; AND CAPTURE OF KASKASKIA.

An important episode in the history of the valley, now presents itself, which can no longer be omitted without leading the narrative too much out of its chronological order; — it is the Virginia conquest of the Illinois. Hitherto the war in Kentucky had been carried on, by the perseverance and gallantry of the backwoodsmen themselves, with little assistance from the power of Virginia; excepting the supply of gunpowder, which had been procured, by the devotion of Messrs. Clark and Jones. The tremendous struggle of the Revolution, involving everything dear to a free and generous people, demanded, as it most gallantly received, all the energies of the Commonwealth. The State had no disposable means to act on so remote a frontier as her western domain; nor does she seem to have distinctly perceived the important diversion

of the Indian force from her more immediate frontier, which might be effected, by supporting the exertions of emigrants to the Kentucky frontier. Every Indian engaged on this distant quarter, was saved to the nearer home of the parent State.

Nor did the public councils anticipate the rich acquisitions offered to the military ambition of Virginia, by the British posts, in the western country. These were views of policy too refined and distant, to command attention, amid the storms, which assailed the heart of the State. They, however, gained force with the progress of the Revolution, and the increasing population of Kentucky, effected by the *spontaneous*, *unsupported* energies of the pioneers.

But they were particularly aided, by the ardent and impressive representations of Major George Rogers Clark. He had witnessed the rise and growth of this section of the State, from its earliest buddings at Harrodsburg and Boonesborough; he had penetrated its condition and its relations with the instinctive sagacity, which stamped him the most consummate of the western commanders. Clark had seen, at a glance, that the sources of the Indian devastations were to be found in the British posts at Detroit, St. Vincents, and Kaskaskia.

Artificial forts have ever been the talismans of military influence over the savages, since Europeans have erected them among these barbarian tribes. The heart-rending ravages spread by the barbarians of the western world, and which have ever been displayed in their hostilities, were aggravated by the ammunition, the arms, and clothing distributed at these military stations. And as if these were not sufficient to excite the furious passions of the Indians, rewards for scalps were commonly offered at the British posts. Hence they were reproached as *hairbuyers* by our people.

Clark thought that if these strongholds of the enemy could be taken, the streams of hostility and destruction, which had overflown Kentucky, and devastated the western frontier, would be dried up; and a counter-influence established over the Indians.

Under the influence of these views, the governor and council of Virginia, in 1778, seem to have taken into consideration the policy of an expedition, earnestly pressed on them by Clark, against the posts of the enemy, though situated many hundreds of miles from the main seat of the population and resources of the State. Still this expedition must be mainly attributed to the genius of

Clark, who had first foreseen its necessity, in his visits to Kentucky, and urged it, upon the councils of his native State.

So strongly had he been impressed with the importance of this movement, that in the summer of 1777, he had dispatched two spies, of the name of Moore and Dunn, to reconnoiter the situation of these remote posts of the enemy. From these emissaries he learned, that great activity on the part of the militia prevailed, and the utmost encouragement was given to the Indians, to practice their cruel ravages on the *rebels.*

Yet notwithstanding the enemy had resorted to every misrepresentation to prejudice the French inhabitants against the Virginians, by telling them that these frontier people were more shocking barbarians, than the savages themselves, the spies reported that strong traces of affection for the Americans, existed among some of the inhabitants. Not that these military agents of Clark's were acquainted with his contemplated expedition, or any body else, till it was laid before the governor and council of Virginia. To this body Clark had determined, he tells us, to submit this matter, when on the 1st of October, 1777, he left Kentucky. "At this time," he says, "every eye was turned upon me, as if expecting some stroke in their favor; some doubted my return, expecting that I would join the army in Virginia. I left them with reluctance, promising them I would certainly return to their assistance, which I had predetermined."

Clark remained a considerable time at Williamsburg, settling the accounts of the Kentucky militia, and, as he says, "making remarks on everything I saw or heard, that could lead me to a knowledge of the disposition of those in power."

During this period, the genius of the Republic, under the good Providence of God, had achieved the victory of Saratoga.* The spell of British regulars, like that of British ships and sailors in more recent times, was broken. The spirit of Virginia may well be supposed to have partaken of the general triumph; and on the 10th of December, 1777, Clark opened the plan of the Illinois campaign to Governor Henry.

At first the Governor was captivated by the brilliant prospect presented by such a campaign, of striking a fatal blow at the enemy and in the heart of their savage allies; yet a detachment on so distant a service appeared hazardous, and daring to an alarm-

* October 17th, 1777.

ing degree; particularly as the secrecy indispensable to success, forbade the communication of the plan to the Legislature. The Governor held several private conferences on this interesting subject with several gentlemen of high character, who inquired minutely into Clark's plans, and particularly into his proposition of retreating to the Spanish possessions, on the west side of the Mississippi, in case of a repulse, which seems to have been anticipated quite naturally.

The result of these deliberations was a full approbation of the whole scheme; and in order to encourage men to enlist in the expedition some patriotic gentlemen*, like worthy sons of the ancient unterrified Dominion, pledged themselves by an instrument of writing to exert their influence to obtain from the Legislature a bounty of 300 acres of land for every person in the expedition.

The Executive and Council now entered so warmly into the scheme, that everything was expedited with "very little trouble to Clark."

On the 2d of January, 1778, he received two sets of instructions;† one public, directing him to proceed to Kentucky for its defence; the other secret, ordering an attack on the British post at "Kaskaskia." The humane and enlarged spirit in which these instructions of the great Henry are penned, reflect honor on the councils of Virginia amid the provocations of a relentless enemy. They form a monument of durable glory in the revolutionary annals of that noble State. Twelve hundred pounds (in depreciated paper it is presumed,) were advanced to Col. Clark, with orders on the Virginia officer at Fort Pitt, (still in the possession of Virginia,) for ammunition, boats and other necessary equipment. Major William B. Smith was dispatched to the settlement on Holston in the south-western part of Virginia, to obtain recruits; Captains Leonard Helm, of Fauquier, Joseph Bowman, of Frederick, William Harrod, and several others, to other quarters. It was desirable that the troops should be raised west of the Blue Ridge, so as not to weaken the defence of the Atlantic coast.

Clark set off on this most adventurous and daring expedition, on the 4th of February, 1778, "clothed with all the authority he could wish."

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* Messrs. Geo. Wythe, George Mason, and Thomas Jefferson in a letter to George Rogers Clark, Esq., January 3d, 1778.

† Appendix.

At Fort Pitt, he met with some difficulties arising from the disputed dominion between Pennsylvania and Virginia over that point. Many thought the detachment of troops even to Kentucky, was a wanton dispersion and division of the strength of the State. The secrecy of the real destination of the expedition and the ostensible one of Kentucky, led some to declare that it were better to remove the Kentuckians, than to weaken the country by their defence. Little did these objectors know the innate vigor and indomitable energy of the backwoodsmen of Kentucky and the West, which had led them to these outposts in the wilderness, when they talked of removing them, like so many dead chattels, out of the country selected by their heroism.

At this very time, Clark received letters from Kentucky informing him of their increased strength since he had left them; and from Major Smith, that he had raised four companies for the expedition, among the people in Holston. This intelligence together with the knowledge that Capts. Helm and Bowman's companies would join him at Redstone, [the present Brownsville, on the Monongahela,] rendered Col. Clark less strenuous in urging his levies about Fort Pitt.

It was late in the season, before he could depart with three companies, and "a considerable number of families and private adventurers." The voyage was prosecuted, as it required, with great caution.

At the mouth of the Great Kenhawa, Col. Clark was pressed by a Capt. Arbuckle commanding the fort at that point, to join him in pursuit of a party of 250 Indians, who had attacked him the day before, and who had now directed their course against the settlements on Greenrbiar river in Virginia. The temptation of probable success was great; but the importance of his own expedition was greater, and fortunately for his country, Clark knew his duty too well, and discharged it too faithfully, to be diverted from the execution of his orders. He continued his course to the mouth of the Kentucky river; here he landed, and at first, thought of fortifying a post at the mouth of that river. Looking, however, to his more western destination, he very judiciously abandoned this intention for a more desirable position at the Falls of Ohio. Here, the craft employed in the river traffic, would be compelled to stop, in order to prepare for the passage of the Rapids; and which without fortification would be much exposed to the hostilities of the

Indians. At the former point, Clark had the mortification to bear, that but one company had arrived in Kentucky of four promised by Major Smith. He immediately wrote to Col. Bowman, informing him of his intention to fix a post at the Falls; and requesting him to bring on the men raised by Smith with as many others as could be spared from the interior stations. Clark proceeded with his troops to the Falls; where he selected and fortified *Corn Island*, opposite to the present flourishing city of Louisville.

On the arrival of Col. Bowman's party, the forces of the country were found too small, to justify taking many soldiers from Kentucky. Clark therefore engaged but one company, and part of another from this quarter, expecting them to be replaced by the troops of Major Smith. Now the real destination of the expedition to Kaskaskia was disclosed to the troops; and most honorably to the gallant feelings of the times, the plan was ardently concurred in, by all but one company. The boats were ordered to be well secured, and sentries were placed where it was supposed the men might wade across to the main shore. These precautions did not prevent the desertion of one whole company, which was visited with the indignation of the country and great personal distress to themselves.

On the 24th of June, 1778, when the sun was in a total eclipse, the boats passed the Falls.* This circumstance divided the opinions of the men in their prognostications, but without the terror and alarm that are read of in many ancient armies and states. Our backwoodsmen were either too sensual, or too spiritual, to entertain these imaginary terrors. All the baggage, except that which was necessary to equip the party in the barest Indian manner, was left behind in the fort, or station on Corn Island. This was necessary as the commander had determined, in order to mask his operations to march to Kaskaskia by land from the nearest point on the Ohio river.

Col. Clark had for sometime meditated a blow at St. Vincents, now better known as Vincennes on the Wabash, but on reviewing his little body, after a rigid selection, he found it to consist of but four companies, under *Capts. Jo. Montgomery*, *Leonard Helm*, *Joseph Bowman* and *William Harrod*. This weakness determined our hero to persevere in his original destination. The facility of retreat to the Spanish possessions, as well as the dispersed

* This date is verified by Ferguson's Tables of Solar Eclipses.

state of the French settlements in the Illinois, as it was called, seems to have had great weight in adopting this resolution. To this was added a hope, that he might attach the French to the American interest, whose influence over the Indians throughout the remote regions of the north-west, had been strengthened by time, and maintained with a tact and versatility, which two centuries have not diminished. To this day, our Indian interpreters, our spies, and many of the subordinate Indian agents are Frenchmen who discharge their duties with unrivalled success. Spaniards have always been much despised by the Indians, and are so still on the Mexican frontier; the English are not much regarded; our own countrymen are hated and dreaded; but the French are beloved. They have more successfully amalgamated with the natives of the forest, than any other European nation; moreover they have not aimed at the conquest and possession of the *Indian hunting grounds* like the English and ourselves.

On the passage down the river, Col. Clark most fortunately received a letter from Col. Campbell of Fort Pitt, formerly mentioned, informing him of the French alliance, an event of the utmost importance to these operations against the ancient rivals and enemies of the French name.

The party proceeded successfully on their adventurous way; when they had reached the mouth of the Tennessee, they were overtaken by one *John Duff* with a party of hunters. These persons though Americans had recently come from Kaskaskia, and communicated the important information, that M. Rocheblave commanded at that place, and kept the militia in good order; that spies were stationed on the Mississippi, and that all Indians and hunters were ordered to keep a sharp look out for the *rebels*. The fort they reported to be kept in good order, as a place of retreat, but without a regular garrison; and the military defence to be kept up as a matter of parade, rather than from any expectation of a necessity to guard against attack. Indeed, who could have expected a military expedition from Kentucky at that day of feebleness; and still less from the remoter parts of Virginia? Still, if this should be anticipated, the force of the place was capable of giving the Americans a warm reception; the inhabitants were said to be led by the British to entertain the most horrid apprehensions of the *Bostonais* (as our countrymen were called by the French) as more barbarous than the Indians themselves. But, said these in-

formants, if the place could be surprised, there could be no doubt of our capturing it; they moreover offered their services to effect this result, and even solicited to be employed. The offer was readily accepted; the intelligence was most opportune, indeed, in the absence of any other, since the return of Clark's spies during the previous year.

One portion of this information particularly pleased Col. Clark, and which determined him to employ it to promote his purposes; it was the dread and horror, in which our countrymen were held by the inhabitants. In consequence of this apprehension, he thought the more violent the shock might be, which his arrival should produce, the stronger would be the sensibility to his lenity so little to be expected from the notorious barbarians, they were represented to be. In fact, Col. Clark determined to turn the national prejudice, which had been excited by the enemy, in his own favor, and employ it as an auxiliary to his diminutive force.

Everything being ready for the march, the boats were dropped down a short distance above the site of Fort Massac, below the mouth of the Tennessee, forty miles above the mouth of the Ohio, (contracted it is said by some, from Massacre,) where they were concealed; and the party took up their toilsome march through swamp, and over deep and muddy creeks with their commander at their head, sharing in every respect the condition of his men. They pursued a north-west direction through the south-western portion of the present State of Illinois, to the ancient French village of Kaskaskia. The march was attended by little that was unusual in these times of privation, beyond the ordinary sufferings of expeditions through the forest and the wilderness. Game and water were, however, scarce; but this did not affect these hardy men so much, as the bewilderment of their guide.

On the third day's march, *John Saunders*, the principal guide, became so confused that he had lost all recollection of the features of the country. This excited immediate suspicion, and a general cry arose among the men, to put the traitor to death. He solicited permission of the Colonel, to go into a prairie, which was full in view, to try and recover himself. His application was granted; but some men were sent with him, to prevent his escape, and he was sternly told, that if he did not conduct the detachment into the hunters' road, which led into Kaskaskia from the east, and which he had frequently described and travelled. leading through

a country not easily forgotten by a woodsman, he should surely be hung. After an hour or two, spent in examining the neighborhood, the poor fellow discovered a spot, which he perfectly recollected, his innocence was established, and the detachment proceeded on their route.

On the evening of the 4th of July, 1778, the expedition reached within a few miles of the town; where a halt was ordered, until dark. The march was then resumed. A house was taken possession of, about three quarters of a mile above the town, which itself lay on the opposite, or western side of the Kaskaskia river. Here, it was learned, that the militia had a few days before been under arms; but no cause of real alarm having been discovered, they were dismissed, and at the time everything was quiet; that there was a "great number in the town, the Indians had, however, mostly gone." A sufficient quantity of boats for transportation of the troops was soon procured. Two divisions of the party crossed the river, with orders to repair to different parts of the town; while Col. Clark with the third division took possession of the fort, (Fort Gage, afterwards called *Fort Clark*), on the eastern side of the river, in point blank shot of the town. Should this detachment meet with no resistance, upon a signal given, the other two parties were directed to possess certain quarters of the town with a general shout; and to send persons, who could speak French, through the streets to give the inhabitants notice, "that every man of the enemy, who should be found in them, would be shot." These dispositions had the most complete success; the fort was taken possession of without resistance; there was no garrison to make it. Clark entered it by a western gate that had been left open on the river side of the fortification. The town of about 250 houses was surrounded, every avenue guarded to prevent communication of intelligence, and "in about two hours the inhabitants were disarmed" *without one drop of bloodshed.*

During the night our men were ordered to patrol the streets with the utmost tumult and whooping after the Indian fashion; while the inhabitants preserved the most profound silence. This artifice, however painful and alarming to the feelings of the inhabitants, was, at the worst, but an innocent stratagem of war. M. Rocheblave, or Rocheblawe, (as Mr. Jefferson has it,) the British governor, was taken prisoner in his own chamber; but very few of his public papers could be secured, as they were secreted or de-

stroyed (it was supposed) by his wife. During the night severa persons were sent for from whom to obtain intelligence ; but little could be procured, beyond what had been already received, except that a considerable body of Indians lay at this time in the neighborhood of Cahokia, about sixty miles higher up the Mississippi, and that M. Gabriel Cerre,* then the principal merchant of Kaskaskia, was one of the most inveterate enemies of the Americans.

This gentleman had left the town, before Clark had captured it; and was then at St. Louis, on his way to Quebec, whence he had lately returned in the prosecution of extensive commercial operations; his family and an extensive assortment of merchandize were at Kaskaskia. By these pledges in his power, Col. Clark thought to operate upon M. Cerre, whose influence was of the utmost consequence to the American interest; if it could be brought to be exerted in its favor. With a view of gaining this gentleman over to this interest; a guard was immediately placed round his house, and seals placep on his property, as well as all the other merchandise in the place. On the 5th the troops were withdrawn from the town to different positions around it; during these movements as all intercourse with the soldiers had been forbidden under heavy punishment, even those of the inhabitants who had been sent for by Clark, had been ordered to have no communication with the rest; distrust and terror overspread the town. In possession of an enemy, of whom the inhabitants entertained the most horrid apprehensions, and all intercourse either with one another or with their conquerors sternly forbidden, their anticipations might well be gloomy. In this state of things, after the removal of the troops, the people were permitted to walk about freely; when finding they were busy in conversation with one another, a few of the principal militia officers were apprehended by orders of Clark, and put in irons, without assigning any reason, or suffering any defence. This immediately produced general consternation, and the worst consequences were expected from the enemy, whom the suspicions of the inhabitants had invested with uncommon terrors. Yet these measures were taken from no wanton cruelty, for of all men, Col. Clark possessed a mild and affectionate disposition; and he severely felt, as he owns every hardship, he believed himself compelled to

* Father to the late Pascal Cerre, Madame Auguste Chouteau, and others in high esteem in the City of St. Louis.

inflict in the prosecution of his duty. After some time, M. Gibault, the good and patriotic Roman Catholic priest of the village, got permission with five or six other gentlemen to wait on Colonel Clark. Shocked as the citizens of Kaskaskia had been by the sudden and most unexpected capture of their town, [and it could not have been more unexpected, had their captors descended from the clouds] by an enemy such as their preju lices had painted, the deputation were evidently still more shocked, when they entered Clark's quarters at the appearance of him and his officers. Their clothes travel-soiled and torn by their voyage down the Ohio, and march over swamps and through forests; their changes of clothes left at the Falls, the appearance of this little band was frightful and savage, as Clark admits, to any eyes. How much more so to this deputation, may be easily conceived by any body acquainted with the refinement and delicacy of the ancient French. The ilustrations of this character need not be pointed out, to those acquainted with the polished circles of the French in New Orleans and St. Louis, on our own continent. It was some time after entering the room, where Clark and his officers were assembled, before they could speak; and not then, until their business was demanded; they asked with unintentional sarcasm, which was the commander? so effectually had this backwoods expedition confounded the differences of rank in appearance, never very palpable in backwoods costume.

He was pointed out; the priest then said, that the inhabitants expected to be separated, never perhaps to see each other again, and they begged through him, to be permitted to assemble in the church together. Could they have expected worse had they been captured by Algerines! Clark aware that they suspected their very religion to be obnoxious to our people, carelessly told the priest, that he had nothing to say against his church; it was a matter Americans left for every man to settle with his God; that the people might assemble at church, if they would; but at the same time, if they did, they must not venture out of town. No doubt, the caution was intended to prevent intelligence and combination abroad. Some further conversation was attempted, on the part of the Kaskaskia gentlemen, but it was repelled, by saying there was no longer leisure for further intercourse, in order to raise the alarm to its utmost height.

The whole town then assembled at the church, even the houses

were deserted by all who could leave them. Orders were honorably given, to prevent the soldiers from entering the vacant buildings. Western soldiers have rarely been guilty of private outrages.

The people remained in the church for a considerable time, after which the priest, accompanied by several gentlemen, again waited on Col. Clark, and expressed in the name of the village, "their thanks for the indulgence they had received." The deputation then begged leave by request of the inhabitants to address their conquerors, on a subject, which was dearer to them than any other; they were sensible they said, "that their present situation was the fate of war, and they could submit to the loss of their property: but they solicited that they might not be separated from their wives and children; and that some clothes and provisions might be allowed for their future support." These gentlemen assured Col. Clark that their conduct had been influenced by their commandants; whom they considered themselves bound to obey; nor were they sure that they understood the nature of the contest between Great Britain and the United States; difficult as it was in this remote region, to obtain accurate information. Indeed, many of the inhabitants had frequently expressed themselves in favor of the Americans, as much as they could. The utmost hope they indulged, was favor to their wives and children.

In this distress of the villagers, Clark who had now wound up their terrors to the desired height, resolved to try the force of the lenity, which had all along possessed his heart. For this purpose he abruptly asked the deputation, "Do you mistake us for savages? I am almost certain you do, from your language. Do you think, that Americans intend to strip women and children, or take the bread out of their mouths? My countrymen," said Clark, "disdain to make war upon helpless innocence; it was to prevent horrors of Indian butchery, upon our own wives and children, that we have taken up arms, and penetrated into this remote stronghold of British and Indian barbarity; and not the despicable prospect of plunder."

"Now," he continued, "the king of France has united his powerful arms with those of America, the war would not, in all probability, continue long. The inhabitants of Kaskaskia were at liberty to take which side they pleased, without the least danger to their property or families. Nor would their religion be any source of disagreement, as all religions were regarded with equal respect

by American law; that any insult, which should be offered to it, should be immediately punished. And now, to prove my sincerity, you will please inform your fellow-citizens, that they are quite at liberty to conduct themselves as formerly, without the least apprehension. I am convinced, from what I have learned, since my arrival among you, that you have been misinformed and prejudiced against us by British officers. Your friends who are in confinement, shall immediately be released."

The agitation and joy of the village seniors, upon hearing this speech from Clark, may well be conceived; they likewise attempted some apology for the implied imputation of barbarism, under the belief, as they said, that the property of a captured town belonged to the conquerors. Clark gently dispensed with this explanation, and desired then to relieve the anxieties of the inhabitants immediately, requesting them, at the same time, to comply strictly with the terms of a proclamation, which would shortly be issued.

The contrast of feeling among the people, upon learning these generous and magnanimous terms of their conqueror, verified the sagacious anticipations of Clark. In a few moments, the mortal dejection of the village was converted into the most extravagant joy, the bells were set a ringing; and the church was crowded with the people offering up thanks to Almighty God for the deliverance from the horrors, they had so fearfully expected. Perfect freedom was now given to the inhabitants to go, or come, as they pleased; so confident was our commander that whatever report might be made, would be to the credit and success of the American cause and the Virginia arms.

For amidst this most unexpected triumph, it must not be forgotten that Virginia counsels and Virginia men effected this flattering and honorable result; whose influence, it will be found, brought the boundaries of the republic to the Mississippi.

Some uneasiness was still felt respecting Cahokia, some sixty miles above Kaskaskia, whose capture Col. Clark determined to attempt and gain, in the same way, if possible, in which he had taken the principal town. This was effected by Maj. Bowman with the co-operation of their neighbors, on the 6th of July, 1778. The alarm of the Big Knife (the formidable appellation of the Virginians at that time,) being in town, spread terror among the helpless part of the little community; it was considerably allayed, however, so soon as the people of Cahokia had an opportunity of

hearing what had taken place in Kaskaskia. The dread of the people was soon changed into huzzas for freedom and the Americans; while Maj. Bowman took possession of another British post at Cahokia. In a few days, the inhabitants took the oath of allegiance, and everything promised the utmost harmony. The visit of our countrymen soon dispersed a body of Indians, who were encamped in the neighborhood of Cahokia; at that time a place of considerable trade.

It may not be inappropriate here to advert to the age and condition of these ancient villages of Illinois, now for the first time subjected to the American arms. They had been founded by the French traders and missionaries, about 1690*; and had borne considerable fruits of prosperity for such remote interior places. These villages had been founded some few years before the City of Philadelphia, now flourishing under the auspices of American liberty, and as distinguished in arts and in learning, as she is justly famed for her virtues and her opulence. While, to exhibit the unhappy fluctuation of condition, so rare in the United States, Kaskaskia but some six or seven years the junior of Philadelphia, and planted under the protection of a powerful monarchy, numbered about one thousand inhabitants in 1842, and 315 by the census of 1850. It is at this day, what by the blessing of God is so uncommon in this most prosperous republic, a ruin; almost a deserted village, filled with the remains of the nicest masonry, in its wells and other crumbling works. It has indeed been doomed to a variety of visitations by "flood and field;" yet it is seated in the heart of the richest garden of nature, the earth offers, between two streams of most inviting capacity of navigation — the Mississippi and the Kaskaskia river. Is there not in store for this rich and beautiful site among the first born villages of Illinois, no redemption from its sad depression, in this day of artificial creations by the magic powers of steam?

* Annals of the West, 2d edition, 678. Bancroft, I. Other authorities, Dr Richard S. Fisher and McCulloch, date the settlement of Kaskaskia in 1683.

ARTICLE III.

Annual Report of the Director of the Mint.

MINT OF THE UNITED STATES,
Philadelphia, January 27, 1854.

SIR: I have the honor to submit the following report, in compliance with the act of Congress of the 18th of January, 1837:

The coinage, including gold bars, executed at the mint in Philadelphia in 1853, has amounted to $60,111,249 72; of which $36,355,621 were in gold coins, $15,835,997 94 were in refined gold bars, $7,852,571 were in silver coins, and $67,059 78 in copper coins. This coinage was comprised in 69,775,537 pieces, being more than twice the number of pieces ever before struck at the mint in a single year. The deposites received were $53,315,-632 64 in gold, and $8,367,339 in silver, including silver purchases made pursuant to the act of March 3, 1853; making a tota of $61,682,971 64.

The coinage at the branch mint at New Orleans amounted to $3,445,000; of which $2,220,000 were in gold coins, and $1,-225,000 in silver. The number of pieces struck was 6,532,000. The deposites were $2,152,254 16 in gold, and $4,536,131 06 in silver, including silver purchases—total $6,688,385 22.

The coinage at the branch mint at Charlotte, North Carolina, amounted to $339,370 in gold, comprised in 77,086 pieces. The deposites were $305,157 06, in gold.

The coinage at the branch mint at Dahlonega, Georgia, amounted to $462,918, in gold, comprised in 99,439 pieces. The deposites were $452,289 76, in gold.

The total coinage of the mint and its branches for the year 1853 was as follows: gold, $55,213,906 94; silver, $9,077,571; copper, $67,059 78; total, $64,358,537 72.

It may be interesting to state, that one million of dollars weighs, in gold, 3,685$\frac{5}{7}$ pounds avoirdupois; and in silver, 54,857 pounds. If 2,000 pounds be taken as the ton, it will be seen that our coinage operations during the last year reach about one hundred and two tons of gold, and two hundred and forty-nine tons of silver.

The amount of gold of domestic productions deposited at the mint and its branches during the last year was $55,622,051, of which sum $55,113,487 was from California, and the balance from the Atlantic States, except a few deposites from Oregon of the value of $13,535. These were the first deposites from that Territory, and are characterized by having an appreciable per centage of platinum sand.

The silver parted from the gold from California amounted to the sum of $407,133; in addition to which, there was received other silver of domestic production to the value of $10,146.

At the principal mint several deposites of Australian gold have been made during the past year, amounting to $195,000.

The entire coinage at the several mints, from the time they commenced operation, is as follows:

Mint at Philadelphia, [1793]	$322,228,868
Branch mint at New Orleans, [1838]	50,497,665
Branch mint at Charlotte, [1838]	3,790,038
Branch mint at Dahlonega, [1838]	5,280,728
Total at all the mints	$381,797,299

I annex to this report several tabular statements exhibiting the foregoing results somewhat in detail, and presenting some other statistics respecting the operations of the mint.

The diminution of the standard weight of the half dollar, and lower denominations of silver coins, authorized by the act of March 3, 1853, has been attended with good results. Under its operations we have had a large supply of silver bullion; and the silver coinage of the new issue has reached the sum of $8,654,161, which is a larger amount than was struck during the five years preceding. Several millions of silver coins have thus been added to the currency; and if the circulation of small notes could be excluded, so as to render the supply necessary, in a short time the new coin would be in general use in every part of our country. The appreciation of silver rendered the alteration necessary. The silver coins of the former standard were issued at the rate of 116-4-11 cents per ounce. The average price of silver, of like fineness, at London and Paris, for several months past, has been 121 cents per ounce. It is very evident, therefore, that coin issued under the former standard would be withdrawn from circulation, and we would have had no silver currency except the old and much-worn Spanish fractions of a dollar, the value of which is diminished from 10 to 12 per cent. It is proper to remark, that some misapprehension has prevailed in regard to the alteratien in the silver coin. The idea is erroneously entertained by many persons, that the fineness of the silver used in the new coin is below the former standard. The only change, however, is in the weight—the half dollar being now fourteen and a quarter grains below the former standard weight, and the smaller coins in the same proportion.

In England, since 1816, a silver currency has been maintained by similar means. There the depreciation of silver below gold, at the prices which ruled when the standards were adjusted by law, may be stated at 11 per cent. Our depreciation below the former standard, as compared with gold, is nearly 7 per cent. The profit to the British mint, when dollar silver is sold at five shillings per ounce in the London market, [which is an average price,] is 7 per

cent. If we bought silver at the same rate, our profit would be not quite 3 per cent; but as our price of silver is 121 cents per ounce of standard fineness, there is an advance of 3 3-10 p. cent. — the new coin being issued at the rate of 125 cents per ounce. The apparent profit to the government is, therefore, 4 cents per ounce; but from this must be deducted certain expenses and wastage.

As soon as the wastage of the last year is determined, a report on the subject will be presented to the Treasury Department.

A charge of the half of one per cent. on the gold coinage is authorized to be made from and after the 1st of April last. The amounts of these charges at the mint and branches are as follows:

At the	
Mint of Philadelphia	$109 265 41
Branch mint at New Orleans	6,684 00
Branch mint at Dahlonega	1,816 00
Branch mint at Charlotte	1,182 00
Total at all the mints	118,947 41

These sums will be transferred to the treasury of the United States, pursuant to the 6th section of the act of Congress before referred to.

The three-dollar gold coin, authorized by the last Congress, will be issued as soon as the dies, now in progress, are completed. From the close approximation in weight and value which the coin will bear to the quarter eagle, it has been deemed expedient to make the devices upon it different from any coin heretofore issued. The device adopted for the *obverse* is an ideal head, emblematic of America, enclosed within the national legend. The *reverse* will present a wreath indicating the most prominent productions of our soil, and enclosing the denomination and date of the coin.

The branch mint at San Francisco, California, it is expected, will be ready to receive deposites and commence operations about the 1st of March next. In consequence of a change in the grade of the street on which the building is being erected, more time will be consumed in its completion than was anticipated. The machinery, which was constructed in Philadelphia, arrived there in good condition on the 12th of December last; but a portion of the fixtures and apparatus had not arrived on the 30th of December, the date of my last advices, the vessel containing them having then been out one hundred and forty-five days. These circumstances will probably delay the commencement of coining operations until the time above stated. The coins to be issued by this branch of the mint will be designated by the letter S on the reverse. It is proper to remark, that the coins of the other branches are designated as follows: New Orleans by the letter O; Dahlonega, D;

Charlotte, C. The coins of the principal mint are not marked by any letter.

The building which is designed for the assay office at New York will be erected and completed in April next. The machinery, apparatus, and implements, will be ready for use as soon as the building is prepared to receive them. We may, therefore, expect operations to commence on the last of April or in the early part of May next.

The result of the overtures recently made to artists and other persons of taste to present designs for the silver coinage, has not been satisfactory. Many designs, and some medallions, were presented, some of them of considerable merit, but their general deficiency consisted in a want of adaptation to the object in view. In making any important change in the designs of the coinage, it seems proper that those which are to be substituted should be of decided and incontestable superiority. The result of the effort has thus produced a conviction favorable to the designs heretofore adopted and in use; our attention will therefore be turned to their artistic improvement, without materially changing their national or emblematic character.

The disturbance of the relative values of gold and silver, and the consequent effects upon national and international currencies upon coinage, and upon pecuniary contracts, is a very large inquiry frequently under discussion in commercial circles, in the public prints, and in halls of legislation. I barely allude to the subject, without entering upon it, further than to offer one or two practical suggestions. According to well considered estimates, the production of the gold and silver mines of the world at the commencement of the present century — not taking into account those countries of Asia which were nearly shut out from the intercourse of nations—was in the proportion of *one* ounce of gold to *forty-six* ounces of silver. Immediately before the opening of California, it had probably changed to one ounce of gold against *seventeen* ounces of silver. An average of the productions of the years 1852 and 1853, upon the same broad scale, appears to give a result of one ounce of gold to less than *four* ouces of silver. And yet, from the first of *these* periods to the last, there has been no great divergence in the bullion market from the relative proportion of one ounce of gold to sixteen ounces of silver. Surely this striking fact ought to allay the feeling of alarm so often experienced as to the abandant production of one metal and the diminished supply of the other. There is, in fact, a happy *accommodation* in the commercial world to these varying relations. When gold was scarce, silver was the great metallic basis, and the former metal was rather used as an adjuvant, specially adapted to some of the wants of trade. But since gold has become plenty, and silver comparatively scarce, the wealthier nations of the world

have taken gold as their prevailing currency, making silver only a subsidiary one, just as copper is to silver. Now, as the purpose of "making change" does not require a very large stock of metal, in comparison with the larger purposes of money, it follows that silver is by no means as much *needed* as formerly; and here we have the very remarkable, almost enigmatical sequence, that silver is valued less *because* it is less produced. The very general adoption of small gold coins, such as our dollar, and even the half of that, if it were practicable, would still further throw silver out of use, and consequently keep down its value. Large quantities of it will always be needed for plate and for ornamental work; but even in this, the growing use of electro-plated ware, in England and in our own country is sure to have a counteracting effect. And here it will be interesting to state, that the greatly diminished cost of *mercury* which is an indispensable agent in the production of silver, is certain to have a large effect in increasing that production. The monopoly of mercury, by which its price was advanced one hundred per cent., and consequently the mining of silver greatly impeded, has been dispelled by the opening of the rich cinnabar mines of California, and the price has receded to the old quotation. Silver mines that have been abandoned can, from this cause, be re-opened, and a greater activity may be expected in those which have been kept constantly in operation. But while the commercial or social accommodation before spoken of, and the probable increase in the production of silver just noticed, may be relied upon to prevent any such violent irregularities as would be denoted by balancing seventeen ounces of silver at one time, and at another time only four ounces, against one ounce of gold, yet there will constantly be a varying per centage of fluctuation, and this will sometimes be so great as to compel a legal modification of standards, and a consequent re-coinage at the mint. And although our own standard of silver has so lately been changed to suit the market, there is reason to fear that the reduction of weight was not sufficient, and that another re-coinage, at no distant day, may become necessary. This, however, is a part of the use for which a national mint is maintained, and for which it should always be in readiness.

It is now due to us, as the great gold producing nation, that our currency should be purged from all bank notes below the denomination of the double eagle. Such a remedy, by increasing the uses of gold, would doubtless mitigate any inconvenience arising from the large production of that metal, and aid us in arriving at the just conclusion that all fears of excessive returns from California and Australia may be put to rest. If the notes under twenty dollars were withdrawn, their places would be supplied by specie, and thus the currency would further approximate to the wholesome standard contemplated by the framers of the Constitution of the United States, and also tend to release the trade and commerce of

the country from the adverse influence of banks of issue. As these institutions are created by the authority of the States, perhaps the only remedy in the power of Congress to apply is that suggested by Mr. Gallatin, who, in view of the right of taxation, says that "Congress may, if it deems proper, lay a stamp duty on small notes, which will put an end to their circulation."

It seems appropriate to my official position that I should take this opportunity to join in the urgent demand, from various quarters, for a simple, intelligible, and well-founded system of weights and measures. The mint has done as much as it can, [and in this step it has been followed by the bank and mint of England,] in repudiating pennyweights and grains in the mode of weighing and keeping accounts, using only the troy ounce and its decimal fractions. The sanction of law had previously been obtained for doing away with carats and carat-grains, in the expression of fineness of gold, and of an equally cumbrous notation for the fineness of silver, substituting the simple millesimal form introduced by French assayers, and becoming general in Europe. But we are still annoyed with another standard of weight — the avoirdupois pound, with its tedious and arbitrary divisions. The establishment of a simple and uniform system, applicable to every kind of weight and measurement, is greatly to be desired, and is well worthy the attention of Congress.

I have the honor to be, with great respect, your faithful servant,

JAMES ROSS SNOWDEN,
Director.

To the PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement of silver of domestic production deposited at the Mint of the United States and its branches, from January 1, 1841, to December 31, 1853.

Year.	Value.
1841	$4,300
1842	6,455
1843	8,640
1844	30,847
1845	4,769
1846	3,066
1847	6,407
1848	6,191
1849	39,112
1850	269,253
1851	389,471
1852	404,494
1853	417,279
	1,590,284

Statement of deposites and coinage at the Mint of the U. S. and its Branches in the year 1853.

	MINTS.				
	Charlotte.	Dahlonega.	New Orleans.	Philadelphia.	Total.
DEPOSITES.					
Gold.					
U.S.coins, old standard	.....	.....	.....	$14.144	$14,144
Foreign coins.....	.....	.....	$121.894	121.546	243,440
U. S. bullion.....	$305,157	$452,290	2,066 673	52,843,787	55,607,907
Foreign bullion.....	.....	.....	23,687	336,155	359.842
Total of gold.....	305,157	452,290	2,152.254	53.315,632	56 225,333
Silver.					
Purchases.....	.....	.....	4,467,458	7,620,167	12,087,625
For. bullion deposited.	.....	.....	56,516	352.196	408,712
U.S.bull.part'd fr. gold	.....	.....	12,157	394,976	407,133
Total of silver.....	.....	.....	4,536,131	8,367,339	12,903,470
Total of gold & silver	305,157	452,290	6,688,385	61,682,971	69.128,803
COINAGE.					
Gold.					
Fine bars..... pieces	.....	.....	.....	4,576	4,576
Double eagles....do..	.....	.....	71.000	1,261,326	1,332.326
Eagles.....do..	.....	.....	51,000	201,253	252.253
Half eagles.....do..	65,571	89,678	.....	305.770	461,019
Quarter eagles...do..	.....	3.178	.....	1,404 668	1,407,846
Dollars.....do..	11,515	6,583	290,000	4,076,051	4.384,149
Value of gold.....	339,370	462,918	2,220.000	52,191.619	55,213,907
Silver.					
Dollars.....pieces	.....	.....	.....	46,110	46,110
Half dollars.....do..	.....	.....	1,328,000	3,532,708	4,860,708
Quarter dollars...do..	.....	.....	1,332,000	15,254.220	16,586,220
Dimes.....do..	.....	.....	1,100.000	12,173.010	13.273,010
Half dimes.....do..	.....	.....	2,369,000	13,345.020	15,705,020
Trimes.....do..	.....	.....	.....	11,400.000	11,400,000
Value of silver.....	.....	..	1,225.000	7,852.571	9,077,571
Copper.					
Cents.....pieces	.....	.....	.....	6,641.131	6,641,131
Half cents.....do..	.....	.....	.....	129,694	129.694
Value of copper....	.....	.....	.....	67,059 78	67.059 78
Total coinage in pieces	77,086	99,439	6,532,000	69,775,537	76,484,062
Total coinage in value	339,370	462,918	3,445,000	60,111,249 78	64,358,537 78

Statement of the amount of gold of domestic production deposited

MINT OF THE UNITED

Periods.	Virginia.	North Carolina.	S. Carolina.	Georgia.	Tennessee.
1804 to 1827	.....	$110,000	.....	.....	.....
1828 to 1837	$427,000	2,519,500	$327,500	$1,763,900	$12,400
1838 to 1847	518,294	1,303,636	152,366	566,316	16,499
1848	57,886	109,034	19,228	3,370	3,497
1849	129,382	102,688	4,309	10,525	2,739
1850	65,991	43,734	759	5,114	307
1851	69,052	49,440	12,338	2,490	126
1852	83,626	65,248	4,505	3,420	.....
1853	52,200	45,690	3,522	1,912	.....
Total	1,403,431	4,348,970	524,527	2,357,047	35,568

Summary exhibit of the entire deposites of domestic gold

Mints.	Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Tennessee
Philadelphia	$1,403,431	$4,348,970	$521,527	$2,357,047	$35,568
New Orleans		741	16,417	39,681	2,719
Charlotte		3,415,287	333,417	.....	.....
Dahlonega		83,666	211,330	3,761,582	244,956
Total	1,403,431	7,848,664	1,085,491	6,158,310	283,243

Summary exhibit of the coinage of the

Mints.	Commencement of coinage.	Gold coinage. Value.
Philadelphia	1793	$247,067,760 94
New Orleans	1838	36,105,865 00
Charlotte	1838	3,790,038 50
Dahlonega	1838	5,280,727 50
Total	.....	292,244,391 94

at the mint of the U. S. and its branches, to the close of 1853.
STATES, PHILADELPHIA.

Alabama.	New Mexico.	California.	Oregon.	Various sources.	Total.
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	$110,000
.....	.....	.....	.....	$13,200	5,063,500
$45,493	.....	.....	.....	21,037	2,623,641
3,670	$682	$44,177	.....	.....	241,544
2,977	32,889	5,481,439	.....	144	5,767,092
1,178	5,392	31,667,505	.....	326	31,790,306
817	890	46,939,367	.....	.....	47,074,520
254	814	49,663,623	.....	.....	49,821,490
.....	3,632	52,732,227	$13,535	5,213	52,857,931
54,389	44,299	186,528,338	13,535	39,920	195,350,024

at the mint and branches, to the close of 1853.

Alabama.	New Mexico.	California.	Oregon.	Various sources.	Total.
$54,389	$44,299	$186,528,338	$13,535	$39,920	$195,350,024
77,282	.....	19,800,751	.....	7,290	19,944,681
.....	.....	58,938	.....	.....	3,807,642
59,352	.....	928,150	.....	951	5,289,987
191,023	44,299	207,316,177	13,535	48,161	224,392,334

Mints to the close of the year 1853.

Silver coinage.	Copper coinage.	Entire coinage.	
Value.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
$73,647,589 90	$1,513,517 17	454,854,315	$322,228,868 01
14,391,800 00	.....	51,077,145	50,497,665 00
.....	.....	914,874	3,790,038 50
.....	.....	1,193,124	5,280,727 50
88,039,389 90	1,513,517 17	508,039,458	381,797,299 01

Report of the Director of the Mint respecting the Quality and Value of Foreign Gold and Silver Coin.

MINT OF THE UNITED STATES,
Philadelphia, January 28, 1853.

SIR: I submit the following report of the fineness and value of certain foreign gold and silver coin, as required by the acts of Congress of January 25, 1834, and March 3, 1843; said coins being therein made a legal tender upon certain conditions, which are contingent upon this report.

GOLD COINS.

The law provides that "gold coins from Great Britain, not less than 915½ thousandths fine, shall be received at 94 6-10 cents per pennyweight." In a long series of years, and operating at times upon large quantities of such coin, we have not been able to find a higher average result than 915½, and it was upon this basis that the enactment was framed. But under the present management of the British mint, and of its assay department, beginning fairly with the year 1852, there is an upward tendency more strictly conforming with the legal standard of 916⅔. The assay of a few pieces of 1852 and 1853 [the course of trade preventing the receipt of large quantities here] gives an average of 916½, and the consequent rate would be 94 7-10 cents per pennyweight. But it will evidently require a large emission at this rate to make a perceptible improvement in any promiscuous parcel; and some years must elapse before the rate fixed by Congress can be elevated.

The gold coins of France are made current at 92 9-10 cents per pennyweight, provided their fineness be not less than 899 thousandths. Their legal standard is 900; but the actual fineness, down to 1852 inclusive, cannot be rated higher than 899.

Gold coins of Spain, Mexico, and Colombia, "of the fineness of 20 carats, 3 7-16 carat grains," equal to 869 14-100 thousandths, are receivable at 89 9-10 cents per pennyweight. While occasionally parcels have been found to be of this fineness, or slightly above it, they are frequently not higher than 866, and would, therefore, appear to be thrown out by the terms of the law. Moreover, the gold coins of New Grenada, which is a part of Colombia, have been minted since 1849 at the new legal rate of 900 thousandths, and, upon repeated trials, are found to average 894. But it is very rare to find any longer in circulation a gold coin of Spain, Mexico, or Colombia.

The gold coins of Porhtugal and Brazil, made current upon condition of being not less than 22 carats [916⅔ thousandths] fine, are really not higher than 914 thousandths; they are now only known amongst us as curiosities, and it is believed are scarce even in their own country.

SILVER COINS.

The Spanish pillar dollars, and the dollars of Mexico, Peru,

and Bolivia, of not less than 897 thousandths fine, and 415 grains in weight, and the dollars of Chili and Central America, and those restamped in Brazil, of not less fineness than "ten ounces fifteen pennyweights in the pound," [895 8-10 thousandths,] and 415 grains in weight, are receivable at one hundred cents each. The present average fineness and value of these coins, as appearing in our circulation, may be stated as in the ensuing table, with some doubt as to the item of Central America, whose coinage is very irregular.

Denomination.	Weight.	Fineness	Value in cents.	
	Grains.	Thous's.	Per piece.	Per ounce.
Spanish pillar dollars.....	412	898	99.7	116.1
Brazilian restamped dollars...	412	898	99.7	116.1
Dollar of Mexico, mixed.....	416¼	899	100.8	116.2
Do.....Peru.....do.....	415	905	101.1	117.0
Do.....Bolivia.....	416½	901	101.1	116.5
Do.....Chili	416½	901	101.1	116.5
Do.....Central America ...	416	870	97.5	112.5

The five-franc pieces of France, if not less than 900 thousandths fine, and 384 grains in weight, are made current at 93 cents. They continue to maintain this average to the year 1852, which is the latest date assayed here.

It is to be noted that the foregoing valuations of silver coin are based upon the legal rate of the United States, as fixed by the act of 1837. Under the act of March, 1853, the mint has been and is now paying a premium upon these rates to procure silver for coinage; consequently, the laws making them current may be considered nugatory and obsolete. The same remark, for other but obvious reasons, may be applied to all the gold coins mentioned in this report, except those of Great Britain and France.

I embrace this opportunity to suggest that there is no longer any propriety or necessity for legalizing the circulation of the coins of other countries. In no other nation, except in the case of some colonies, is this mixture of currencies admitted by law, either on the score of courtesy or convenience. When these laws as to foreign coins were passed our coinage was inconsiderable, but during the last few years the pieces struck, in number and value, it is believed, is scarcely inferior to that of any other country. The last year more than seventy-six millions of pieces were struck, of the value of upwards of sixty-four millions of dollars. If this suggestion is approved, and the laws which legalize foreign coins be repealed, it would be proper, by a standing regulation of the Treasury Department, or by legislative enactment, to require an annual assay report upon the weight and fineness of such for-

eign coins as frequently reach our shores, with a view to settle and determine their marketable value. Such a report would be a judicious substitute for the one now presented.

I have the honor to be, with great respect, your faithful servant,

JAMES ROSS SNOWDEN,
Director.

HON. JAMES GUTHRIE,
Secretary of the Treasury.

ARTICLE IV.

Col. Fremont's Exploration of the Central Railroad Route to the Pacific.

To the Editors of the National Intelligencer:

GENTLEMEN: While the proceedings in Congress are occupying public attention more particularly with the subject of the Pacific Railway, I desire to offer to your paper for publication some general results of a recent winter expedition across the Rocky Mountains, confining myself to mere results, in anticipation of a fuller report, with maps and illustrations, which will necessarily take some months to prepare.

The country examined was for about three-fourths of the distance — from the Missouri frontier, at the mouth of the Kansas River, to the Valley of Parowan, at the foot of the Wahsatch Mountains within the rim of the Great Basin, at its south-eastern bend—along and between the 38th and 39th parallels of latitude; and the whole line divides itself naturally into three sections, which may be conveniently followed in description.

The first or eastern section consists of the great prairie slope, spreading from the base of the Sierra Blanca to the Missouri frontier, about 700 miles; the second or middle section comprehends the various Rocky Mountain ranges and interlying valleys between the termination of the great plains at the foot of the Sierra Blanca and the Great Basin of the Parowan Valley and Wahsatch Mountains where the first Mormon settlement is found, about 450 miles; the third or western section comprehends the mountainous plateau lying betwen the Wahsatch Mountains and the Sierra Nevada, a distance of about 400 miles.

The country examined was upon a very direct line—the traveled route being about 1,550 miles over an air-line distance of about 1,300 miles.

The First Section. — Four separate expeditions across this section, made before the present one, and which carried me over

various lines at different seasons of the year, enable me to speak of it with the confidence of intimate knowledge. It is a plain of easy inclination, sweeping directly up to the foot of the mountains which denominate it as highlands to the ocean. Its character is open prairie, over which summer traveling is made in every direction.

For a railway or winter traveling road, the route would be, in consideration of wood, coal, building stone, water and fertile land, about two hundred miles up the immediate valley of the Kansas, [which might be made one rich, continuous cornfield,] and afterward along the immediate valley of the Upper Arkansas, of which about two hundred miles, as you approach the mountains, is continuously well adapted to settlements, as well as to roads. Numerous well-watered and fertile valleys—broad and level—open up among the mountains, which present themselves in detached blocks —outliers—gradually closing in around the heads of the streams, but leaving open approaches to the central ridges. The whole of the inter-mountain region is abundant in grasses, wood, coal and fertile soil. The Pueblos above Bent's Fort prove it to be well adapted to the grains and vegetables common to the latitude, including Indian corn, which ripens well, and to the support of healthy stock, which increase well and take care of themselves summer and winter.

The climate is mild and the winters short; the autumn usually having its full length of bright, open weather, without snow, which in winter falls rarely and passes off quickly. In this belt of country lying along the mountains the snow falls more early and much more thinly than in the open plains to the eastward; the storms congregate about the high mountains and leave the valleys free. In the beginning of December we found yet no snow on the *Huerfano* River, and were informed by an old resident, then engaged in establishing a farm at the mouth of this stream, that snow seldom or never fell there, and that cattle were left in the range all the winter through.

This character of country continued to the foot of the dividing crest, and to this point our journey resulted in showing a very easy grade for a road, over a country unobstructed either by snow or other impediments, and having all the elements necessary to the prosperity of an agricultural population, in fertility of soil, abundance of food for stock, wood and coal for fuel, and timber for necessary constructions.

Our examinations around the southern headwaters of the Arkansas have made us acquainted with many passes, grouped together in a small space of country, conducting by short and practicable valleys from the waters of the Arkansas just described, to the valleys of the Del Norte and East Colorado. The Sierra Blanca, through which these passes lie, is high and rugged, presenting a very broken appearance, but rise abruptly from the open

country on either side, narrowed at the points through which the passes are cut, leaving them only six or eight miles in length from valley to valley, and entirely unobstructed by outlying ranges or broken country. To the best of these passes the ascent is along the open valley of water courses, uniform and very gradual in ascent. Standing immediately at the mouth of the Sand Hill Pass —one of the most practicable in the Sierra Blanca, and above those usually traveled—at one of the remotest head springs of the Huerfano river, the eye of the traveler follows down without obstruction or abrupt descent along the gradual slope of the valley to the great plains which reach the Missouri. The straight river and the open valley form, with the plains beyond, one great slope, without a hill to break the line of sight or obstruct the course of the road. On either side of this line hills slope easily to the river, with lines of timber and yellow autumn grass, and the water which flows smoothly between is not interrupted by a fall in its course to the ocean. The surrounding country is wooded with pines and covered with luxuriant grass, up to the very crags of the central summits. On the 8th of December we found this whole country free from snow, and Daguerrean views taken at this time show the grass entirely uncovered in the passes.

Along all this line the elevation was carefully determined by frequent barometrical observations, and its character exhibited by a series of daguerreotype views, comprehending the face of the country almost continuously, or at least sufficiently so to give a thoroughly correct impression of the whole.

Two tunnel-like passes pierce the mountains here, almost in juxtaposition, connecting the plain country on either side by short passages from five to eight miles long. The mountains which they perforate constitute the only obstruction, and are the only break in the plain or valley of road from the frontier of Missouri to the summit hills of the Rocky Mountains, a distance of about eight hundred and fifty miles, or more than half-way to the St. Joaquin valley. Entering one of these passes from the eastern plain, a distance of about one mile upon a wagon road, already traveled by wagons, commands an open view of the broad valley of San Luis and the great range of San Juan beyond on its western side. I here connected the line of the present expedition with the one explored in 1848-49 from the mouth of the Kansas to this point, and the results of both will be embodied in a fuller report.

At this place the line entered the middle section, and continued its western course over an open valley country, admirably adapted for settlement, across the San Luis valley, and up the flat bottom lands of the Sah-watch to the heights of the central ridge of the Rocky Mountains. Across these wooded heights — wooded and grass-covered up to and over their rounded summits—to the Coo-cha-to-pe Pass, the line followed an open easy wagon way, such as is usual to a rolling country. On the high summit lands were

forests of coniferous trees, and the snow in the pass was four inches deep. This was on the 14th of December. A day earlier, our horses' feet would not have touched snow in the crossing. Up to this point we had enjoyed clear and dry, pleasant weather. Our journey had been all along on dry ground; and traveling slowly along, waiting for the winter, there had been abundant leisure for becoming acquainted with the country. The open character of the country, joined to good information, indicated the existence of other passes about the head of the Sah-watch. This it was desirable to verify, and especially to examine a neighboring and lower pass connecting more directly with the Arkansas valley, known as the Poow-che.

But the winter had now set in over all the mountain regions, and the country was so constantly enveloped and hidden with clouds which rested upon it, and the air so darkened by falling snow, that exploring became difficult and dangerous, precisely where we felt most interested in making a thorough examination. We were moving in fogs and clouds, through a region wholly unknown to us, and without guides, and were therefore obliged to content ourselves with the examination of a single line, and the ascertainment of the winter condition of the country over which it passed; which was in fact the main object of our expedition.

Our progress in this mountainous region was necessarily slow, and during ten days which it occupied us to pass through about one hundred miles of the mountainous country bordering the eastern side of the Upper Colorado valley, the greatest depth of snow was among the pines and aspens on the ridges about two and a half feet, and in the valleys about six inches. The atmosphere is too cold and dry for much snow, and the valleys, protected by the mountains, are comparatively free from it, and warm. We here found villages of Utah Indians in their wintering ground, in little valleys, along the foot of higher mountains, and bordering the more open country of the Colorado valley. Snow was here [December 25,] only a few inches deep—the grass generally appearing above it, and there being none under trees and on southern hill sides.

The horses of the Utahs were living on the range, and, notwithstanding that they were used in hunting, were in excellent condition. One which we had occasion to kill for food had on it about two inches of fat, being in as good order as any buffalo we had killed in November on the eastern plains Over this valley country — about 150 miles across — the Indians informed us that the snow falls only a few inches in depth; such as we saw it at the time.

The immediate valley of the Upper Colorado for about 100 miles in breadth, and from the 7th to the 22d of January, was entirely bare of snow, and the weather resembled that of autumn in this country. The line here entered the body of the mountains known

as the Wah-śatch and An-te-ria ranges, which are practicable at several places in this part of their course; but the falling snow and destitute condition of my party again interfered to impede examinations. They lie between the Colorado valley and the Great Basin, and at their western base are established the Mormon settlements of Parowan and Cedar City. They are what are called fertile mountains, abundant in water, wood and grass, and fertile valleys, offering inducements to settlement and facilities for making a road. These mountains are a great storehouse of materials —timber, iron, coal—which would be of indispensable use in the construction and maintainance of the road, and are solid foundations to build up the future prosperity of the rapidly increasing Utah State.

Salt is abundant on the eastern border—mountains, as the *Sierra de Sal*, being named from it. In the ranges lying behind the Mormon settlements, among the mountains through which the line passes, are accumulated a great wealth of iron and coal, and extensive forests of heavy timber. These forests are the largest I am acquainted with in the Rocky Mountains, being in some places twenty miles in depth of continuous forest; the general growth lofty and large, frequently over three feet in diameter, and sometimes reaching five feet—the red spruce and yellow pine predominating. At the actual southern extremity of the Mormon settlements, consisting of the two enclosed towns of Parowan and Cedar City, near to which our line passed, a coal mine has been opened for about eighty yards, and iron works already established. Iron here occurs in extraordinary masses, in some parts accumulated into mountains, which comb out in crests of solid iron thirty feet thick and a hundred yards long.

In passing through this bed of mountains about fourteen days had been occupied, from January 24 to February 7, the deepest snow we here encountered being about up to the sattle skirts, or four feet—this occurring only in occasional drifts in the passes on the northern exposures, and in the small mountain flats hemmed in by woods and hills. In the valley it was sometimes a few inches deep, and as often none at all. On our arrival at the Mormon settlement, February 8, we found it a few inches deep, and were there informed that the winter had been unusually long-continued and severe, the thermometer having been as low as seventeen degrees below zero, and more snow having fallen than in all the previous winters together since the establishment of this colony.

At this season their farmers had usually been occupied with their plows, preparing the land for grain.

At this point the line of exploration entered the *third* or western section, comprehending the mountainous *plateau* between the Wahsatch Mountains and the Sierra Nevada of California. Two routes here suggested themselves to me for examination; one directly across the *plateau* between the 37th and 38th parallels; the

other keeping to the south of the mountains, and following for about two hundred miles down a valley of the Rio Virgen—Virgin River — thence direct to the Tejon Pass, at the head of the San Joaquin Valley. This route down the Virgin River had been examined the year before with a view to settlement this summer by a Mormon exploring party under the command of Major Steele, of Parowan, who [and others of the party,] informed me that they found fertile valleys inhabited by Indians who cultivated corn and melons, and the rich ground in many places matted over with grape vines. The Tejon Passes are two, one of them [from the abundance of vines at its lower end] called *Caxon de las Uvas*. They were of long use, and were examined by me and their practicability ascertained in my expedition of 1848–1849; and in 1851, I again passed through them both, bringing three thousand head of cattle through one of them.

Knowing the practicability of these passes, and confiding in the report of Major Steel, as to the intermediate country, I determined to take the other, [between the 37th and 38th parallels,] it recommending itself to me as being more direct towards San Francisco, and preferable on this account for a road, if suitable ground could be found; and also as being unknown, the Mormons informing me that various attempts had been made to explore it, and all failed for want of water. Although biased in favor of the Virgin River route, I determined to examine this one in the interests of geography, and accordingly set out for this purpose from the settlements about the 20th of February, traveling directly westward from Cedar City, [eighteen miles west of Parowan.] We found the country a high table land, bristling with mountains, often in short isolated blocks, and some times accumulated into considerable ranges, with numerous open and low passes.

We were thus always in a valley, and always surrounded by valleys more or less closely, which apparently altered in shape and position as we advanced. The valleys are dry and naked, without water or food; but the mountains are generally covered with grass and well wooded with pines; springs are very rare, and occasional small streams at remote distances. Not a human being was encountered between the Santa Clara river near the Mormon settlement and the *Sierra Nevada*, over a distance of three hundred miles. The solitary character of this uninhabited region, the naked valleys without water courses, among mountains with fertile soil and woods and grass abundant, give it the appearance of an unfinished country.

Commencing at the 38th, we struck the Sierra Nevada on about the 37th parallel about the 15th March.

On our route across we had for the greater part of the time, pleasant and rather warm weather; the valley grounds and low ridges uncovered, but snow over the upper parts of the higher mountains. Between February 20 and 17th of March we had sev-

eral snow-storms, sometimes accompanied with hail and heavy thunder; but the snow remained on the valley grounds only a few hours after the storm was over. It forms not the least impediment at any time of the winter. I was prepared to find the Sierra here broad, rugged, and blocked up with snow, and was not disappointed in my expectation. The first range we attempted to cross carried us to an elevation of 8,000 or 9,000 feet and into impassable snow, which was further increased on the 16th by a considerable fall.

There was no object in forcing a passage, and I accordingly turned at once some sixty or eighty miles to the southward, making a wide sweep to strike the *Point of the California Mountain* where the Sierra Nevada suddenly breaks off and declines into a lower country. Information obtained years before from the Indians led me to believe that the low mountains were broken into many passes, and at all events I had the certainty of an easy passage through either of Walker's passes.

When the Point was reached, I found the Indian information fully verified; the mountain suddenly terminated and broke down into lower grounds barely above the level of the country, and making numerous openings into the valley of the San Joaquin. I entered into the first which offered, [taking no time to search, as we were entirely out of provisions and living upon horses,] which led us by an open and almost level hollow, thirteen miles long, to an upland not steep enough to be called a hill, over into the valley of a small affluent to Kern river; the hollow and the valley making together a way where a wagon would not find any obstruction for forty miles.

The country around the passes in which the Sierra Nevada here terminates declines considerably below its more northern elevation. There was no snow to be seen at all on its eastern face, and none in the pass; but we were in the midst of opening spring, flowers blooming in fields on both sides of the Sierra.

Between the point of the mountains and the head of the valley at the Tejon the passes generally are free from snow throughout the year, and the descent from them to the ocean is distributed over a long slope of more than 200 miles. The low dry country and the long slope, in contradistinction to the high country, and short, sudden descent and heavy snows of the passes behind the bay of San Francisco, are among the considerations which suggest themselves in favor of the route by the head of the San Joaquin.

The above results embody general impressions made upon my mind during this journey. It is clearly established that the winter condition of the country constitutes no impediment, and from what has been said the entire practicability of the line will be clearly inferred. A fuller account hereafter will comprehend detailed descriptions of country, with their absolute and relative elevations, and show the ground upon which the conclusions were based. They

are contributed at this time as an element to aid the public in forming an opinion on the subject of the projected railway, and in gratification of my great desire to do something for its advancement. It seems a treason against mankind and the spirit of progress which marks the age to refuse to put this one completing link to our national prosperity and the civilization of the world. Europe still lies between Asia and America; build this railroad and things will have revolved about; America will lie between Asia and Europe — the golden vein which runs through the history of the world will follow the iron track to San Francisco, and the Asiatic trade will finally fall into its last and permanent road, when the new and modern Chryse throw open their gates to the thoroughfare of the world.

I am, gentlemen, with much regard, respectfully yours,

J. C. FREMONT.

Washington, June 13, 1854.

ARTICLE V.

Mobile and Ohio Railroad.

TO SIDNEY SMITH, ESQ., *President of the Mobile and Ohio Railroad Company.*

For the information of Directors and Stockholders, I have the honor to submit the following report of the Construction Department of their road:

It will be recollected that in April, 1853, contracts for graduation had been made for the entire line from Citronelle to the State line of Kentucky, with the exception of a few miles light work in North Mississippi and Tennessee; all of which have been subsequently disposed of, and the remainder of the line through Kentucky, terminating on the Ohio river at Paducah, placed under contract to be completed ready for iron, as follows: fifteen miles next the river by the 1st of April, 1854, and the remainder, to a junction with the main line from the mouth of the Ohio river, by the 1st of November, 1854, simultaneously with the completion of the contracts through Tennessee and Mississippi. Of the main line through Kentucky, that portion only has been contracted which lies in Hickman county, including the Columbus, Kentucky branch; leaving thirty-one and a half miles in Fulton and Ballard counties to be disposed of. This small portion of the line has been postponed, for the purpose of securing the right of way and the required amount of subscription from those counties, who alone, of all the counties on the route of road, have to the close of 1853 been unmindful of their own interest by not advancing the road.

Two hundred thousand dollars are required from both counties, fifty from Fulton, and one hundred and fifty from Ballard; and as the road cannot be placed in these two counties respectively, until the required amounts are raised, it is believed active measures will be taken therefor. The Columbus, Mississippi, branch was placed under contract in June of 1853, to be completed in the spring of 1854. Recapitulating, we have in progress of construction, at this time, all of the main road, excepting the two above named, equal to 462 miles;

All of the Paducah branch	59	"
All of the Columbus, Ky., branch	5	"
All of the Columbus, Miss	14	"
Total	540	miles.

PROGRESS OF THE WORK.

First Division. — From Citronelle to the line of Lauderdale county, Mississippi, 93⅝ miles—all the heavy and difficult work is completed, and the remainder so far advanced that no part of it for a day can detain the track, if laid with all practicable speed. Upon the first 50½ miles of this distance the value of work done to the 1st of March, is $282,137

Value of do. to complete the same ready for the tracks. 18,360

Upon the remaining 43 miles, all light work, amount done to 1st of March, is 111,750

Do. to be done to complete the same ready for the tracks 118,763

Second Division.—Extending through Louderdale and Kemper counties, Mississippi, and 59 miles in length, embracing the heaviest grading of the whole road. During the past year white labor was here relied upon, but not half of it could be obtained to fully man the work; yet, the value of work done to the 1st of March upon the 59 miles, is $134,797, leaving to be done exclusive of timber and tracks, the value of $193,189. This division is now provided with a force of white men, sufficient to complete it in all of this year, and before the tracks can approach it from the South and North as contemplated.

Third Division.—Extends through Noxubee, Lowndes, Monroe and Chickasaw counties, Mississippi—length 83¾ miles. This division is generally light work, and nearly all in the hands of planters, who being allowed two years by their contracts, for the execution of the work, which might be done in one, they have in many instances, postponed a beginning till this spring. The returns, therefore, do not show as much done in proportion as upon the 1st and 2d divisions; yet two-fifths of all the earth-work is now done, with bricks and cement furnished for an equal or greater proportion of the masonry.

The determination of all the contractors on this division is to finish their work in all of this year, and as they control three times

more men than are required for that purpose, there can be no doubt of their success.

From a central point of this division, the branch road puts out to Columbus upon the Bigby river, the graduation of which, including timber for the tracks, is now two-thirds done, and all arrangements made for its completion by the first of July next.

Iron rails for this branch and for seven miles of the main road have been ordered to Columbus, and preparations made for laying the track thence, as early as the first of June, consequently this branch will be in running order by the 1st of September, and track-laying begun in Lowndes county upon the main line, in both directions from the branch junction.

By shipping iron up the Bigby river during all of the next winter, the tracks will be continued South to meet the completed road in Lauderdale county and North to the Pontotoc line. To the latter point, under this arrangement, the road can be completed and cars running by the 1st September, 1855.

Fourth Division. — Extends from Chickasaw county to the Tennessee State line, 66½ miles in length, and was the last work placed under contract in April, 1853.

Two-fifths of the earth-work is now done, and preparations made for masonry and bridging. The force designed to be placed on this divisioa, so soon as the spring rains are over, will complete nine-tenths of it in twelve months, and the heavy points (of which there are three) in eighteen to twenty-four months.

Fifth Division. — Extending through the State of Tennessee, is 118½ miles long, one-third of the earth is nearly done, and two-sevenths of the whole value of all work graduation completed. The work is generally light upon this Division; is all, excepting three Divisions, in the hands of planters, who can and will complete it for the iron, within the present year, and furnish timber for the tracks during the first three or four months of 1855.

Sixth Division. — Consists of the main line in Kentucky, 40 miles in length, and the Paducah and Columbus branches, respectively 59 and 5 miles long; making the total length of the division, main road and branches, 104 miles; of which 72⅝ are in progress. The Paducah branch is all in the hands of one efficient Company, who have now 15 miles at the Paducah end nearly ready for the tracks, and can complete the whole by the 1st of December next. Thirteen miles and a half in Hickman county, Kentucky, including the Columbus branch, has made some progress to the amount of $5,000, but will be urged rapidly on as soon as the remaining 31½ miles in Fulton and Ballard counties can be put under contract. Iron rails have been ordered to Paducah in moderate quantity, that the track-laying may be commenced as early as practicable. With a continued supply of rails at Paducah, the tracks may reach Jackson, Tennessee, by the 1st of October, 1855, and the heavy work in North Mississippi by the time the road reaches

there from the south; which with proper diligence by the contractors preparing the road-way, and by the Company in furnishing the rails, ought not to extend beyond the 1st of June, 1856.

The tracks are now laid about ten miles above Citronelle, and will hereafter be continued uninterruptedly until the whole road shall be completed.

The value of all work done on the Road is as follows:

Mobile to Citronelle, 33 miles	$500,000
1st Division—to Lauderdale county, Miss	394,000
2d Division—to Noxubee county, Miss., 59 miles	135,000
3d Division—to Pontotoc county, Miss., [including the Columbus branch] 96¾ miles	180,000
4th Division—to Tennessee State line, 62¼ miles	53,000
5th Division—to Kentucky line, 118½ miles	144,000
6th Division—to the Ohio river at Paducah, and the Hickman county contract, 72⅝ miles	50,000
Total for Grading and 43 miles laid	$1,456,000
Value of rails, bolts, &c., on hand at Citronelle for 64 miles of Road	450,000
Right of way, Engineering and Contingent Expenses	150,000

Making a total of work done, machinery and rails, of $2,056,000

Besides which, there are 8,100 tons of rails now arriving from Messrs. Thompson and Forman, which, with previous purchases, will complete 147 miles of the Columbus and Paducah branches.

Notwithstanding the hard times for money, the collections of instalments have invariably kept ahead of the local work, and so long as the present good feeling exists throughout the line, based as it is upon the confidence in the merits of the road as a stock investment, and upon the want of it as a commercial avenue, the Treasurers will not be troubled to meet the requisitions for the work. Stockholders, however, must at all times bear in mind, that to have the work done quickly, they must pay promptly.

The planters on the route have lost on an average $8 per bale on their last year's crop of cotton, in consequence of not getting it to market as soon by three months, as they would have done by the road. At least two hundred thousand bales are grown in counties contiguous to the road, upon which the loss sustained this year is $1,600,000; and this is the second crop in three years, upon which this loss has fallen by late rivers and depressed prices.

The subscriptions for the Tennessee River branch are nearly to the amount required. It is now expected that the contracts can be made therefor in May next.

The State of Tennessee has given another proof of her wise policy, by amending her Internal Improvement law of 1852, and

granting $10,000 per mile to the Mobile and Ohio railroad and several other roads, instead of $8,000 as before.

The Tuscaloosa, Gainesville and Mississippi Railroad Company are now seeking a direct line of road from the Warrior coal fields to the Mobile road. When built it will be one of the most valuable tributaries to your road and city. Should this fail, the line chartered from Tuscaloosa, via Eutaw and Livingston, will put you in connection with the same coal fields, but less favorably, on account of greater distance and consequent greater cost of coal transportation.

In addition to the connecting roads mentioned in the last annual report, two others are projected and justly merit the confidence and the support of the people to be accommodated by them. The *first* is from Coffeeville, running near Greensborough and Philadelphia, Miss., to the Mobile and Ohio Railroad, at or near Enterprise, in Clark county. Eventually, this line will be extended via Panola and Hernando to Memphis, Tenn.

The *second* is from Columbus, Miss., to Decatur, Ala., to connect with your Columbus branch. It is represented, by the very competent Engineer, who has examined it, as a cheap and feasible route for construction of a railroad. But this is not the place nor is it my province to discuss the merits of connecting roads. I wish merely to invite the attention of all parties interested *for* or *against* the Mobile and Ohio Railroad, to the true reason, why so many railway lines north of the 32d dg. parallel of latitude are converging to a junction with the *Mobile* road. It is because the *Mobile Bay* is the natural, nearest and best southern outlet by railway for all men living between the Alleghany Mountains and the Mississippi River north of latitude 32, including also, the States of Missouri and Iowa, and the Mobile presents the shortest and the cheapest trunk line of travel to that Bay.

This is proved by three prominent points through which most of the travel must pass. *Jackson, Tenn.*, will be at least 95 miles farther from New Orleans by the Great Northern and Mississippi Central Roads, than from Mobile by the Mobile and Ohio Railroad. *Nashville, Tenn.*, will be 94 miles nearer to Mobile via the bend of the Tennessee River and the Mobile and Ohio Railroad, than to New Orleans via the Chicksaw, Aberdeen and Great Northern Road; and the point of intersection of the two latter roads will be 110 miles nearer Mobile than New Orleans.

Take these facts in connection with the superior character of Mobile Bay for accessibility and depth of water, over the largest river entering the Gulf, and no man need loose faith in the success of the Mobile road, let him be ever so timid, or money affairs ever so tight. Allow me the liberty to repeat, what I know to be true, that the Mobile and Ohio Railroad possesses more fully all the leading elements of success, as a stock investment and com-

mercial avenue, than any other line or Railroad in the U. States, without exception. Resting upon this undeniable character of the road, the people of the country along its whole length are steadily progressing with the work, and will continue to progress until finished, generally within the period of their contracts.

The trains have been run with commendable regularity between Mobile and Citronelle during the past year, supplying the city with brick, wood, lumber and small crops—the contractors on the line above with provisions—and for the road extension 7,000 tons of rails from Mobile.

The Treasurer will furnish you with an abstract of gross earnings, expenses and net income for the year.

During the epidemic last summer, many persons escaped by the road to places of safety in the country, whilst others afflicted, received timely assistance with the speed which a locomotive alone can give. To the Resident Engineer of the 1st Division, John W. Goodwin, Esq., was entrusted the general supervision of the Running Department. Of him and his associates, it is but justice to say, they merit the thanks of the company for their persevering faithfulness whilst death took more than half their number, but could not drive them from the post of duty.

With high regard, I am yours,

JOHN CHILDE,
Chief Engineer and General Agent.

WEDNESDAY, March 8, 1854.

At an election by the stockholders, held this day at the office of the Mobile and Ohio Railroad Company, the following named gentlemen were elected Directors for the ensuing year, viz:

James Whitfield, Mississippi, Milton Brown, Tennessee, Sidney Smith, Francis B. Clark, J. Emanuel, Duke W. Goodwin, R. Lee Fearn, David Stodder, H. A. Schroeder, Newton St. John, Moses Waring, Charles Walsh, Hillary Foster.

At a meeting of the Board held March 16th, at their office, Sidney Smith was unanimously re-elected President of the Company, and A. F. Irwin, Secretary and Treasurer. The following gentlemen were elected members of the Executive Committee for the ensuing year: Francis B. Clarke, Chairman, J. Emanuel, Duke W. Goodwin.

ARTICLE VI.

Civil Statistics of St. Louis:

MAYOR'S MESSAGE, &c.

Gentlemen of the City Council:

In submitting for your consideration the reports from the officers of the several departments in the city government, I take occasion to ask your attention to the following suggestions, believing that a favorable action with regard to them would be calculated to advance the interest and general prosperity of the city.

In addressing you at your first meeting, I gave as my opinion, that there would be no necessity, during the present fiscal year, for a further issue of bonds for city purposes, as those already authorized would in all probability be ample for the Improvement of Harbor, Building of Reservoir, Sewers, &c., for which they were especially designed, leaving the revenue for the general improvements, viz: the extension of water-works, paving streets, opening new avenues, &c.; although the amount of damages that we may be subjected to in the last named work may possibly so far surpass my expectations as to render a further issue of bonds, to a limited extent, absolutely necessary.

My own convictions on the subject of improvements are clearly in favor of finishing those already commenced before we begin new ones, always excepting those, however, which are demanded for the preservation of health, or materially affect the interest of the city. We have, at this time, a sufficient amount of unfinished work on hand to require all our efforts for completion during the present year; and this fact alone would warrant me in recommending this course, to which I am also influenced by the depressed and unsettled condition of the money market throughout the country, and from a desire to sustain the high position we have hitherto held in a financial and commercial point of view. And as heavy expenditures would necessarily compel us to raise money on our bonds, we might be compelled from present appearances to make sacrifices which would not be warranted by the necessities of the case, and which would be calculated to lessen the confidence of the people in our legislation.

The report from the Board of the City Common, will inform you that near one thousand lots of that property are now surveyed, and will be offered for sale early in the coming month; and my own belief, based upon the present value of suburban property, is that the proceeds of the entire sales, will pay all our indebtedness for city purposes after reserving a sufficient amount of the land for public squares and buildings.

The entire debt of the city for outstanding bonds is $3,259,296, and of this amount the sum of $1,246,000 is invested in railroads,

leaving the balance of $2,013,296 as the actual indebtedness for improvements of city and harbor. From this is to be deducted $96,000, bonds which were issued for private sewers, and which are to be paid by special tax within five years—and a further deduction of $199,850, being the proceeds of sales of the city stores, held in reserve for the redemption of the bonds issued for the erection of those buildings, leaving the nett indebtedness at $1,813,-446 00.

We need only court inquiry and examination into our affairs to prove conclusively, that no safer or better investment can be made than in St. Louis bonds, based on a landed property which at a reasonable calculation is worth over three millions, and a revenue which was last year $725,966,84; and with the usual increase will reach near $800,000.

We may fairly and without fear of contradiction boldly assert that no city of the Union can rival us in the prosperity of our financial condition.

You will notice that the surplus revenue of the last fiscal year amounted to $37,434 20-100, half of which was appropriated by the City Council, the remainder, $18,717 10-100, is unappropriated and can be disposed of as the charter directs.

The new reservoir is now fairly under way, and with our usual share of good weather, it is thought that we can have it finished and filled with water by the 1st of November. And in view of the fact that the present engine at the Water Works will be insufficient to supply a sufficient quantity of water, I would recommend that a committee be appointed to correspond and make inquiries from competent engineers, so as to obtain the necessary information with regard to the most approved and economical plan of obtaining an ample supply of water for our growing population. And in connection with this, make it the duty of the committee to ascertain whether a change in rates may not be desirable, so as to charge as I believe is the case in several other cities, in proportion to the size and value of the house occupied by the parties assessed as well as the quantity of water used — collecting from the owner of the building.

The engine may not be needed this year, but I think it is not too early to call your attention to the subject so as to insure one being prepared when necessity requires. And to the subject referred to, might be added the inquiry, whether the present Water Works should not be removed to the lot purchased for the purpose some year since? I think that an examination of the contract for water pipes and those ordered to be contracted for, will satisfy you that the amount is fully as much as can be put down during the present year, taking the amount laid down in former years as a criterion; but it is much to be desired, that when pipe is contracted for there should be no unnecessary delay in filling it.

The sickness of the Superintendent, and other causes, operated so as to produce much complaint last year. I believed means are now being taken to guard against this in future. In this department a gratifying increase of revenue is shown, amounting to about $13,000, and with the change in the mode of collecting, made by the last Council, I expect a yet further increase. That we have a right to expect this will be easily seen, by comparing our revenue from this source, with that of other cities.

To the Police Department, on which so much of the safety and order of the community depends, I have given considerable attention; and although some few instances of dereliction have occurred, yet it affords me pleasure to say, that as a body, they are faithful and vigilant. I am of the opinion that the ordinance regulating this department might be so amended and improved as to insure a greater efficiency. One among other suggestions that recommends itself, and which has been adopted in most of the eastern cities, is that the Police should wear a uniform, or badge, that would be better adapted for designating their office than the star now worn, which, if one of the members from a lack of courage, or what is still more reprehensible, from false pride, desires, is easily concealed.

The Police have arduous and responsible duties to perform, and he who applies for the office should have a pride in wearing its ensignia and possess the courage to perform his duties fearlessly.

I would also recommend that the record which is now kept in the police, embrace a description of the articles and monies received from offenders, as well as give the description of their persons, with their names, &c., for the purpose of reference. A copy of this should be furnished the Mayor monthly, to be filed in the archives where, in the changes which are made nearly annually in the Police Department, it cannot be effected.

I cannot let this opportunity pass without alluding to the conduct of the officers and men of the police, in the excitement growing out of the Hoffman affair. I found them ready and willing to perform every service necessary in the support of law and order. I owe much to the battalions of Cols. Renick and Knapp, who voluntarily assembled at their armories, at the time of the trouble alluded to, and a portion of whom, at my request, appeared on the scene under commands of Capts. Frost and Pritchard. Happily their services were not required except as a guard — but it gave me pleasure to feel that we had so gallant a body of men at our command ready to preserve the peace and order of our city.

The Superintendent of the Work House reports his charge as healthy, and working about the Park and streets in the neighborhood. I believe it is the design of the committee on this department to remove the inmates to the new work house on Carondelet avenue in June, and if so, the cost to the city will be greatly diminished; for although the work performed by the prisoners has

been advantageous to the vicinity, and contributed to beautify and improve Lafayette square, yet it does not look so favorably on the balance sheet.

I regret to inform you that the hope we entertained of procuring, within a reasonable distance from the city, boulder stones for paving our streets, has been disappointed.

The contractor with whom the city made agreement, has given up the idea, saying he cannot find a sufficient quantity, and we are once more thrown back upon the old plan, which I cannot find any thing to recommend. I trust, however, that the early completion of some of our railroads will afford us facilities of bringing stone or iron, that will be calculated for this description of work, and we feel well assured that from these avenues alone has St. Louis the hope of procuring a material that will answer for improving her streets. It is the intention of the Engineer to pave with stone on edge all the streets on the sewer route as high up as Fifth street, the present season, under the provisions of the ordinance authorizing such a course. In examining the expenditure for repairs of streets, I find that two of the most costly are Carondelet avenue and Broadway, both of which are macadamized, and the work renewed almost yearly; and as a measure of economy, I would recommend that you take immediate steps for the paving of both, the first south of Convent street, and the last north of Morgan street. Our finances will not permit us to pave its entire length, but if we begin, our successors will probably finish. The importance of both these avenues are so well known, I need not enlarge upon it, but only express the wish that it meet with your approbation.

Jackson and Columbus streets are now opened, and South Main will be during the present month. In the case of Carr street, the executions for benefits are now in the hands of the Marshal, and the street will be opened on receipt of the assessments. These are the first streets that have been opened under the provisions of the amended charter, and the benefits on the first named streets have in most cases been promptly paid.

I design proceeding without unnecessary delay to condemn the streets provided for by ordinances, viz: Wash, Fourth, Fifth, Walnut, Carondelet, and the Wharf to Lewis street. I would remark that I am also authorized to open a large number of other streets, besides the condemnation needful in extending the wharf; and as these street cases add very considerably to the labor performed by the City Register, and for which he receives comparatively no pay, I would suggest that a compensation be allowed him for extra services rendered, and in the performance of which he has been compelled to employ an additional clerk.

During the past year, applications were made to the Council for an increase of the salaries for some of the officers, but only in the case of the assistant marshals were they successful. I would ask

you to investigate the subject, as I am clearly of the opinion that some of the officers of the city government, [Engineer, for instance,] have salaries entirely inadequate to the amount of labor performed. The office of city Engineer is one of great importance and responsibility — the duties of which are constantly increasing in magnitude, and when we take into account how slight a negligence or inattention on his part might cause a heavy pecuniary loss to the city, it becomes us to pay him a salary commensurate with the value of services rendered.

I would earnestly urge upon the Council the improvement of our parks and public squares. Thus far, Lafayette Park is the only one that has any embellishment whatever, and the credit of that is chiefly due to private enterprise. Washington and Carr squares are both as unsightly as when they came into our possession, a fact which is not very creditable to our liberality or taste. Surely we might spare a sufficient sum to render both these squares valuable and ornamental to the portion of the city in which they are situated.

The Inspector of the Fire Department's report will be found amongst your papers, drawn up with his usual ability. You, also, have a letter of Miles Greenwood, Esq., engineer of the fire department at Cincinnati, written in answer to one of mine, making inquiries; also, his report to the Council of that city, a document the more interesting at this time, as it treats on the steam fire engine now in use there.

You will also find the report of a committee of the Boston council which visited Cincinnati for the purpose of examining the engine referred to.

These papers I am prompted to send you for investigation, and if you become as favorably impressed with the subject treated of, as I have been, there is no doubt that you will use the necessary measures to secure its use in the fire department of this city.

I would also call your attention to a proposition emanating from the underwriters of this city to aid them in the purchase or building of a steam tug boat to be used in the harbor in case of fire. I need not enlarge upon its importance—the remembrance of the different fires that have taken place at our landing within the past few years are too vivid to require any further allusion to them as arguments in favor of the measure. The detail of the proposition will be brought before you in due time.

The House of Reform.—Since the meeting of the council the committee, which has had this matter in charge, has been industriously preparing for the organization of this department, and hope soon to report it to you in full and successful operation.

The Quarantine.—I have not yet been able to procure a suitable site for the removal of the quarantine, though I have some hopes of being soon successful. In the meantime every exertion

has been used and will be continued in order to enforce the laws regulating that department.

THE CITY HOSPITAL. — This institution your Board of Health report favorably of as heretofore, and I believe it well deserves it. The additions to the building are progressing, and when finished will add greatly to its usefulness.

Were I not fully impressed with the necessity of erecting a suitable hall for the preservation of the archives and use of the departments of the city government, I would not again urge this measure upon your attention. We are now the tenants of a building that is badly constructed for such purposes, and no citizen will, I presume, take pleasure in pointing it out to a stranger as the municipal hall of the empire city of the West.

I am induced to believe that propositions offering you suitable grounds for this purpose, will be submitted to you, which I trust may be of such a character as to justify our acceptance.

The embarrassment of the Pacific railroad company has been so much the subject of conversation during the past week, that I shall make no further allusion to it than to express my confidence that its difficulties are but temporary in their character, and that its interest is so closely allied to that of St. Louis city and county, that we cannot, in justice to ourselves, permit it to suspend.

The Iron Mountain railroad company, to whom I have delivered the bonds authorised by ordinance, have put their whole road under contract, with the understanding that it is to be completed by 1856.

Their acceptance of the block of ground, as provided by ordinance No. 3149, has been filed in the Register's office, which determines the route known as the river route to be the one adopted.

To the North Missouri railroad we have delivered the bonds it was entitled to. This company has not yet put their road under contract, but in all probability will do so during the present week.

I hope the difficulties which have so far retarded this project are in a fair way of being overcome, and that we may soon realize the benefits which its completion must bring to the community.

The Ohio and Mississippi railroad reports progress, and still expect to complete their road within this year.

In my first communication to the Council of last year, I recommended that commissioners should be appointed to examine the suburbs of the city with a view of surveying and recommending such additional territories and boundaries as would be in their opinion advisable to add to the city. To such a measure I believe there would be little or no objection—as the defeat of the annexation project of 1853 was evidently in consequence of the objectionable manner in which it was designed to be carried into effect. If the commissioners be composed of competent engineers or citizens who can report to the Council a satisfactory line, the measure would no doubt be approved of by the next Legislature. I would

respectfully call the attention of the present Council to the subject.

I send you the report of the city counsellor, T. T. Gantt, Esq., furnished, at my request, showing the cases in which the city was a party, and which were determined in the several courts of this county, as well as the supreme court during last year.

I send you a communication from A. Vinton, Esq., president of Chamber of Commerce of this city, and to which you will no doubt give that attention which the importance of the subject requires.

In addressing you on subjects connected with the city interests, it is hard to know where to conclude, but with full confidence, gentlemen, that in your case they will be developed and looked to, I conclude.

Yours, JOHN HOW.

St. Louis, May 8th, 1854.

COMPTROLLER'S REPORT.

BONDED DEBT.—The bonded debt of the city at the commencement of the fiscal year, April 10, 1853, was—

			$2,341,096	Int. $141,603 76
Of which there have been paid—				
1853, May 3, 1 10 per cent bond,	1,000	Int. 100		
1853, May 22, 1 10 per cent bond,	200	20		
1853, June 12, 1 6 per cent bond,	1,000	60		
1853, June 26, 1 10 per cent bond,	1,000	100		
1853, August 11, 1 10 per cent bond.	600	60		
1853, August 19, 1 10 per cent bond,	1,000	100		
Deduct			4.800	440 00
			2,336,296	141,163 76
Bonds issued during the fiscal year 1853				
225 Pacific Railroad company	225,000			
20 for extension of water works	30,000			
1 for Christy avenue sewer	1,000			
4 for St. Charles street sewer	4,000			
5 for Morgan street sewer	5,000			
28 to pay balances	28,000			
50 for harbor	50,000			
275 for stock in Ohio & Mis. R. R.	275,000			
4 for Locust street sewer	4,000			
2 for Ninth street sewer	2,000			
75 for Iron Mountain R. R co.	75,000			
135 for old limit improvement	135.000			
75 for North Missouri R. R. co.	75,000			
14 for wharf north	14 000			
923 bonds all at 6 per cent			923,000	55,380 00
		Am't.	3,259,296	Int. 196,543 76

Total bonded debt April 8th. 1854. as detailed in table, $3,259,296, showing an increase deducting $4,8000 paid of $918,200.

Of the above Bonds	$30,900	are 10 per cent	$3,090 00
	3,203,396	6	192,203 76
	25.000	5	1,250 00
	3,259,296		196,543 76

Sale of City Bonds during Fiscal Year 1853.

By reference to the bonded debt table, it will be seen that nine hundred and twenty-three bonds were issued during the fiscal year 1853. Of these bonds two hundred and twenty-five were delivered to the Pacific Railroad Company, two hundred and seventy-five to the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad Company, seventy-five to the Iron Mountain Railroad Company, and seventy-five to the North Missouri Railroad Company, at par in payment of calls made on the stock owned by the city in those companies. The interest on which is paid by those companies, the first in certificates of stock, the others in cash.

The remaining two hundred and seventy-three bonds were sold at the following prices, to wit:

1853, May 7,	30	Bonds,	New Water Works	a	100 1-10	$30,030 00
do do 26,	1		Christy avenue sewer	a	99	990 00
do do do,	4		St. Charles street sewer	a	99	3,960 00
do do do,	5		Morgan street sewer	a	99	4,950 00
do June 16,	50		Improvement harbor	a	par	50,000 00
do do 27,	28		To pay balances	a	do	28,000 00
do August 29,	4		Locust street sewer	a	do	4,000 00
do Sept. 26,	2		Ninth street sewer	a	do	2,000 00
1854, Feb. 28,	19		Old limit improvement	a	91	17,290 00
do March 1,	25		do do	a	92	23,000 00
do do 3,	3		do do	a	92	2,760 00
do do 13,	1		do do	a	91	910 00
do do 27,	1		do do	a	91	910 00
do April 4,	86		do do	a	90	77,400 00
do do 4,	14		Wharf north do	a	90	12,600 00
	273	bonds sold for				$258,800 00

The aggregate of the foregoing sales has averaged nearly 95 cents net paid into the City Treasury.

The bonds due the present fiscal year 1854, are, viz

May 22, 1	Meadley and Turnbull bond,	$200	10 per cent,	St. Louis
Aug. 1, 5	Chesnut street sewer No. 3,	5,000	6 per cent,	N. York.
		65,200		

Of the bonded debt there were issued

for private sewers	$96,000
for railroad stocks	1,150,000
Amount	$1,246,000

Deducting which the city's debt proper for general purposes is $2,013,296 00.

The proceeds of the sale of the city stores in block No. 7 amounted in the aggregate to $199,850 00, which leaves the amount of indebtedness to be provided for, $1,813,446 00. This amount can easily be raised out of the sale of the city commons.

In order to enable you to institute a comparison between the various items of revenue for the past two fiscal years, I have prepared a table for that purpose hereto annexed:

Comparison of the Revenue—Fiscal Years 1852 *and* 1853.

	1852.		1853.		Increase.	Decrease.
Licenses	$31,175 00		28,835 00			2,340 00
Cemetery	226 35		207 50			18 85
Vehicles	9,517 00		10,959 02		1,442 02	
Redem'n property	6,258 46		8,408 71		2,150 25	
		47,176 81		48,410 23		
Surveying fees			302 00		302 00	
Water works	36,995 38		49,865 04		12,869 66	
City commons	3,449 97		3,025 17			424 80
Ground rent	441 00		441 00			
Rent stores, blocks	1,500 00		7,662 96		6,162 96	
Mark't stalls&st's	12,430 68		12,903 18		472 50	
Fines and Fees	4,035 53		5,987 63		1,952 10	
		58,852 56		80,186 98		
Market str. scales	1,568 10		1,353 76			214 34
North market do.	1,564 00		1,238 35			325 65
Gas light divid'd.	1,800 00		2,255 55		455 55	
Contingent	926 00					926 00
Merchants taxes.	40,767 82		45,418 58		4,650 76	
General taxes	361,421 02		384,039 62		22,618 60	
		408,046 94		434,305 86		
Harbor taxes	17,670 42		19,201 98		1,531 56	
Wharf har'r mast.	52,814 33		55,428 40		2,614 07	
" lumber "	828 82		943 53		114 71	
" wood "	1,866 54		2,030 44		163 90	
Special taxes	6,400 91		3,683 16			2,717 75
Quarantine fees			885 00		885 00	
		79,580 02		82,172 51		
Ohio&Miss.R.R.	9,000 00		16,500 00		7,500 00	
co. to pay interest	5,658 03		5,445 72			212 31
Chesn. str. sewer	7,256 85		5,956 14			1,300 71
Olive " "			6,428 63		6,428 63	
Pine " "						
		21,914 88		34,330 49		
Harb. sale of st. Pounder			600 00			
Open. Jackson str.			2,426 38			
" Columbus "			3,304 39			
				6,330 77		
Sale of stores, block 7			40,230 00			
Sales of bonds	498,898 12		258,800 00			
		498,898 12		299,030 00		
Receipts in treasury		1,114,468 33		984,766 84		

The receipts into the City Treasury for the fiscal year 1853, exclusive of the sale of Bonds, exceeded those of the year 1852, $110,396 63, the principal increase being in the items of Water Works, Merchants, General Taxes, etc.

The total receipts in the Treasury for	1852,	for 1853,
Exclusive of loans, was	$615,570 21	$725,966 84
Deduct therefrom for special objects, viz:		
For new limits, half its revenue,	$79,518 10	$90,837 63
For Wharf fund	55,506 69	58,402 37
For harbor tax	17,670 42	19,201 98
For special tax fund	6,400 91	3,683 16
For school fund 1-10 commons rev.	344 99	302 51
For sewer fund	12,914 88	17,830 00

For inter't from O.& M.R.R.Co.	9,000 00		16,500 00	
Sale of stores in block 7.....			40,230 00	
Opening Jackson & Columbus str.			5,730 77	
Harbor sale of steamer Pounder			630 00	
		181,355 99		254,318 42
The nett revenue for 1852 was		434,214 22	for 1853	471,648 43

Showing a surplus of $37,434 20. The surplus fund has been appropriated to the Commons, Police, and cleaning of Streets, jointly.

At this early period of the fiscal year, no estimate can be made of the probable revenue of the year. This can only be done after the assessment lists of the taxable property are completed.

The Treasurer's and Auditor's report, herewith accompanying, will show you in detail the receipts and expenditures of the last fiscal year, and also the balance in the treasury at the close of it. Since the commencement of the present fiscal year, there were sold 1854, April 15, 10 bonds to improve Wharf north at 91 c., $9,100, which are to be added to the Bonded table.

Respectfully,

H. Overstolz, Comptroller.

AUDITOR'S REPORT.

Receipts and Expenditures of the City of St. Louis, from April 11, 1853, *to April* 8, 1854, *inclusive.*

RECEIPTS.

Licenses—Including pedlars, auctioneers, tavern, dram shops, beer house, exhibition, insurance, brokers', ferry, ten-pin alley, &c.....		$28,835 00
City cemetery.....	$207 50	
Vehicle licenses.....	10,959 02	
Redemption of property.....	8,408 71	
		19,575 23
Water works.....	49,865 04	
City commons and interest.....	3,025 17	
Rents of ground.....	441 00	
		53,331 21
Stalls and stands.....	12,903 18	
Rents of stores, block 7.....	7,662 96	
		20,566 14
Fines and fees.....	5,987 63	
Special taxes.....	3,683 16	
		9,670 79

Hay and Coal Scales. — Market Street scales	1,353 76	
North market	1,238 35	
		2,592 11
Merchants' taxes	45,418 58	
Taxes of real estate	384,039 62	
Harbor tax	19,201 98	
		448,660 18
Collected at quarantine	885 00	
Dividend on gas light stock	2,255 55	
		3,140 55
Interest from Ohio & Miss R. R. Co.	16,500 00	
Harbor.—Sale of steamboat Pounder	600 00	
		17,100 00
Jackson street	2,426 38	
Columbus	3,304 39	
		5,730 77
Block No. 7.—Sale of store	40,230 00	
Surveying fees	302 00	
Wharf.—Collections	58,402 37	
		98,934 37
Chesnut street sewer 3	5,445 72	
Pine street sewer 5	6,428 63	
Olive street sewer 7	5,956 14	
		17,830 49
Loans.—New water werks 30 bonds	30,030 00	
Locust street sewer No. 10, 4 bonds	4,000 00	
North street sewer 2 bonds	2,000 00	
To pay other bonds, 28 bonds	28,000 00	
Harbor, 50 bonds	50,000 00	
Christy avenue sewer No. 1, 1 bond	990 00	
St. Charles street sewer, 4 bonds	3,960 00	
Morgan street sewer, 5 bonds	4,950 00	
Old limits improvements, 135 bonds	122,270 00	
Wharf north, 14 bonds	12,600 00	
		258,800 00
Cash in treasury April 11, 1853		56,930 58
		$1,041,697 42

EXPENDITURES.

New Limits, First Ward	$19,106 24	
" Second Ward	4,168 36	
" Third Ward	17,905 36	
" Fourth Ward	4,363 78	
" Fifth Ward	6,833 06	
" Sixth Ward	24,400 10	
Salaries	20,008 22	
Wharf	50,154 91	
		151,940 03

Printing and stationery	6,263 43	
New water works	66,103 59	
Water works current	22,159 25	
Work house	27,218 15	
Police	44,541 18	
		166,285 60
Seventh street sewer	1,408 54	
Special tax fund	2,932 12	
Redemption	18,34	
School	344,99	
Public buildings	1,992 66	
Streets and alleys	42,781 37	
		49,478 02
Contingent	9,778 69	
City Council and Clerks	5,642 59	
Hospital	23,926 40	
Board of Health	1,942 68	
Fire Department	15,237 48	
		56,527 84
Engineer Department	6,512 08	
Cleaning streets	21,595 54	
Lighting the city	35,205 78	
Interest	161,454 25	
Harbor	84,166 52	
House of Refuge	2,651 34	
City commons	4,000 00	
		315,585 71
Wharf north	24,562 84	
Wharf south	13,202 10	
Lucas market and Olive street sewer	3,240 18	
Pine and Olive street sewer	1,908 76	
Pine street sewer No. 5	2,888 23	
		55,802 11
Olive street sewer No. 7	643 06	
Chesnut street sewer No. 3	3,007 06	
Bills payable	1,201 00	
Bills receivable	1,000 00	
Ninth street sewer	16,146 97	
Poplar street sewer	18,923 26	
		40,921 35
North west sewer	3,256 70	
St. Charles street sewer	842 74	
Vine street sewer	8,497 30	
Locust street sewer No. 9	10,680 27	
Locust street sewer No. 10	5,439 59	
Morgan street sewer	3,792 25	
		32,508 94

Christy avenue sewer 1	2,924 60	
Christy avenue sewer 2	1,479 72	
Hospital extension	139 35	
Old limits improvements	93,540 51	
		98,084 18
		967,133 78
Amount of warrants paid	967,021 83	
Amount of warrants out	111 95	
		967,133 78
Warrants paid	967,021 83	
Old warrants paid	1 40	
Cash in the treasury	74,674 19	
	$1,041,697 42	

ANDREW ELLIOTT, Auditor.
WM. GLASGOW, Treasurer.

REPORT OF SUPERINTENDENT OF THE WORKHOUSE.

To the Honorable Board of Delegates:

According to Ordinance, I herewith submit for your consideration a statement of the receipts and expenditures of the City Workhouse, including salary of Superintendent and Guards, board of Guards and prisoners, tools, clothing, bedding, fuel, medicines, smith's bills, repairs, lights, horse feed, &c., from October, 1853, to May, 1854.

Also, the amount and character of work done during this period, with accompanying remarks and explanations.

Very respectfully, Your ob't. sv't,

WILLIAM LINGO.

Months. 1853–1854.	November,	December,	January,	February,	March,	April,		
No. prisoners committed to Workhouse	59	68	29	38	41	56	—	—
Number of prisoners discharged from Workhouse	38	41	24	40	46	41	—	—
Number of prisoners remaining	85	112	117	115	108	109	—	—
No. of days' work done by prisoners	17 75	17 65	15 35	19 46	14 17	22 85	—	230 291
Amount for work done	1243 50	1256 90	1074 50	1362 20	991 90	1599 50	—	$7507 50 107 25
Number of days' work done by horses	246	220	250	289	260	287	—	$1552
Total amount for prisoners and horses	$1488 50	1456 90	1324 50	1651 20	1251 90	1886 50	—	$9059 50
Cash received of prisoners	$52 20	52 45	38 75	39 90	44 75	144 50	—	$372 55
Salary of Superintendent and Guards	$307 00	307 00	307 00	307 00	307 00	307 00	—	$1842 00
Board of Guards and prisoners	$788 60	805 00	777 40	750 00	661 40	812 60	—	$4595 00
Expenses for supplies, &c	$609 26	773 47	306 01	513 71	353 06	344 15	—	$2899 66
Fines remitted by Mayor	$481 28	244 25	509 00	16 00	437 65	254 55	—	$1942 70

RECAPITULATION.

Number of prisoners committed	291
do. do. discharged	230
Number of days work done by prisoners	10,725
Amount for work done at 70c per day, board included	$7,507 50
Amount for work done by horses and carts at $1 p. day	1,552 00
Tot. am't for work done by prison., horses and carts	9,059 50
Cash received of prisoners for fines, &c	372 55
Salary of Superintendent and Guards	1,842 00
Board of Guard and prisoners	4,695 00
Expenditures for supplies, smith bills, repairs, clothing,	2,899 66
Fines remitted by Mayor	1,942 70

WORKHOUSE. DR.

To board of Guard and prisoners six months	$4,525 00
To salary of Superintendent and guards	1,842 00
To expenditures for fuel, lights, &c	2,899 66
To balance	95 39
	$9,432 05

WORKHOUSE. CR.

By amount for work done	$9,059 50
By cash received from prisoners for fines	372 55
	$9,432 05

Balance in favor of Workhouse at 70 cents per day for prisoners labor, including board $95 39

During the period embraced in this report, there were 291 commitments, and of this number there were from

Ireland	193
Germany	97
United States	23
Mexico	11
England	18
France	10
Scotland	9
Males	193
Females	98

Remaining at present time 109 prisoners.

In the early months embraced in this report, the workhouse hands were employed in grading Tayon and Clark avenues. They were withdrawn from Tayon and Clark avenues by order of the committee, to work on Lafayette Park, three of the avenues around the Park have been completed, and are now at work on improving the interior of the Park.

The Icehouse at the City Hospital has been filled with good ice, besides the performance of much other labor not included in this report.

The females, (of which there has been an unusually large number,) have been employed in making clothing for the prisoners, in washing and scrubbing.

Very respectfully, Your ob't. sv't, WILLIAM LINGO.

ARTICLE VII.

St. Louis, Memphis and New Orleans Railroad.

When the Mississippi Valley Railroad, to connect the city of New Orleans with the Falls of St. Anthony, was projected, in October, 1852, we presented the claims of three routes, south of Missouri, viz: the Little Rock, the Memphis, and the Helena route.*

The conntry from Missouri to Memphis, and from Missouri to Helena, had been unexplored by railroad engineers, and a merely preliminary survey had been made by the government of the U. S. from St. Louis to Fulton via Little Rock.

We, however, obtained information of the peculiarity of Crowley's Ridge extending from Missouri to Helena, 150 miles, with an almost unbroken, firm and high surface on its side above the swamp and overflowed lands with which it was surrounded. Helena was also in a nearly direct line from St. Louis to New Orleans. The Arkansas country on each side of Crowley's Ridge abounded with unreclaimed swamp and overflowed lands. The Helena route was considered shortest and cheapest, and therefore prefered.

The Memphis route, it was thought, might be established by the construction of that portion of the Memphis and Little Rock railroad from the Mississippi to the St. Francis, 40 miles, across the swamp; and although it was considered impracticable to build a road from Old Indian Ford to Memphis through the lakes, swamps, &c., 140 miles, on the east side of the St. Francis; yet it was then declared that "Memphis might hold out inducements to make its route preferable" to the Helena route.

In regard to the Little Rock route it was considered that "advantages might be gained by and from Little Rock and the country along its route, to produce a great preponderance in its favor," although the Little Rock route was estimated 95 miles longer than the Memphis route. The Little Rock route has been earnestly and uniformly advocated by us; and although violently opposed by a strong political party in Arkansas, as a "visionary scheme too wild for a respectable maniac," and "worse than a man's trying to hold himself out at arm's length," this scheme has become more respectable than its adversaries, and stronger than their

* See Western Journal & Civilian, vol. 9, page 39, October, 1852.

strength, and is progressing with reasonable speed, by the impetus given to it by its friends combined with its own intrinsic merits.

We will now present the claims of the Memphis route together with newly discovered evidence in its favor, hoping soon to obtain yet further evidence of a commercial character, which will place this route on a commanding position.

The final survey of the Railroad from St. Louis to the Iron Mountain reduces the distance to 80 miles from Hazel street, on the route which is now located in every part, which is under contract, on which 350 men are now working, and $35,000 have been paid to the contractors for work done to 1st June, 1854.

The extension of the Iron Mountain road towards Arkansas reaches the Swamp District near Indian Ford, 150 miles from St. Louis. The route of this extension was found to be far more practicable than its warmest friends anticipated, the grades being easier, and the cost averaging $10,000 per mile less than that of the portion between the Mountain and St. Louis, whereas from the estimates of Barney's survey it was apprehended that the relative cost would be much greater below than above the Mountain. Considering the mountainous character of the country, this line of 70 miles from the Mountain to the Ford is remarkably straight. It is the only good line that could be obtained south of the Mountain towards Arkansas, and furthermore is in the direction of Memphis.

The Indian Ford may be considered a fixed point in the Mississippi Valley Railroad, which ever way the road may be extended towards the South, and this point, though on the verge of the Swamp District, is destined soon to rise and become a point of great distinction. Therefor it may be well to designate it now with reasonable distinctness. Old Indian Ford is on the St. Francis river near though south of the junction of Wayne, Butler and Stoddard counties. It is equidistant from Cairo, Hickman, and the Arkansas line in Grand Prairie, Dunklin county, being about 60 miles on an air line from each. It is also nearly equidistant from New Madrid and from Point Pleasant on an air line, being about 45 miles from each; and it is just 30 miles from the Arkansas line in Ripley county, where the best route is found along the northwestern border of the Swamp Region in the direction of Little Rock and Fulton in Arkansas. Three routes have already been surveyed by the Iron Mountain Co. radiating from Old Indian Ford: one to Cairo, one to the Arkansas line in Ripley county,

and one to New Madrid, the last mentioned extending to Point Pleasant. A great variety of other experimental surveys were made throughout the Swamp Region; and it is believed from indications discovered in these discursive experimental surveys, that one of the most practicable routes from Old Indian Ford towards New Orleans would be almost in a straight line in that direction; that is on the east side of the St. Francis river through Stoddard and Dunklin counties to the Arkansas line, in Grand Prairie, which is also in a direct line toward Memphis.

A powerful argument in behalf of this route in Missouri might be built up, based on the reasonable presumption, that a railroad bed constructed along the eastern shore of the St. Francis in Stoddard and Dunklin counties would be the best embankment to prevent the occasional overflow of this river in these counties, and further that such an embankment may be essential to reclaim the swamp lands in these and the adjoining counties of New Madrid and Pemisco, as also of a large part of the country in Arkansas east of the St. Francis. This branch of this subject is well worthy the careful consideration of the Swamp Land Commissioners of Arkansas, as also of the above mentioned swamp counties of Missouri.

That the probable feasibility of this route may be still more highly appreciated, and that the ignorant prejudice against building a railroad through the Swamp District may be more thoroughly advised and fairly enlightened, it is proper to state, and it should not be forgotten that while the cost of the construction of the railroad from St. Louis to the Iron Mountain, ready for rolling stock, averages $40,000 per mile along its 80 miles, and that while the cost of construction of the railroad from the Iron Mountain to Indian Ford, ready for rolling stock, averages $30,000 per mile along its 70 miles, the cost of construction of railroads from Indian Ford through various portions of the Swamp Region, ready for rolling stock, averages in general only $18,000 per mile, being only about ½ as much as the average from St. Louis to the Indian Ford.

That the length and cost of the Missouri portion of the St. Louis, Memphis and New Orleans Railroad, may be somewhat minutely yet concisely shown, we may conclude from the data above stated, as the distance from Indian Ford to the Arkansas line in Grand Prairie, Dunklin county, is 60 miles on an air line, and as the

average deviation from an air line may be fairly represented by one sixth, that the length of Indian Ford and Grand Prairie line is 70 miles, and that the cost of construction of this link, ready for rolling stock, averaging $18,000 per mile, is $1,260,000; and placing the links in tabular form we find

The length of the St. Louis and Iron Mountain link		80 miles
"	Iron Mountain and Indian Ford link	70 "
"	Indian Ford and Grand Prairie link	70 "
Total length of the Missouri portion		220 miles

Cost of 1st division,	80 miles,	at	$40,000	per	mile,	$3,200,000
" 2d "	70 "		30,000	"		2,100,000
" 3d "	70 "		18,000	"		1,260,000
						$6,560,000
By adding cost of rolling stock together with buildings and fixtures for same at the rate of $4,000 per mile, 220 miles.....						880,000
We find total cost of Mo. portion in running order						$7,440,000

Touching the Arkansas portion of the St. Louis and Memphis Railroad o r the route bove indicated, as it may become a link of vast importance in the Mississippi Valley Railroad, and as it was originally and almost universally thought to be utterly impracticable, it is but justice to Mr. W. D. Ferguson. of Arkansas, to fix the fact that he is the man who first projected and earnestly advocated this route. One year ago from this date at the Memphis Convention in June, 1853, in conversation with the author of this article, he presented the claims of this route, and urged them with the light of his experience on the ground, and with the warmth of his enthusiasm in the prospect. Not one word could we then hear in its favor excepting from him.

Since then but little has been said or done on this subject until the first day of March, 1854, when G. W. Underhill, of Arkansas, E. H. Porter, of Tennessee, and L. M. Kennett, of Missouri, with their associates in each of said States formed themselves into a corporation under the general law of the State of Arkansas by the name of *Memphis and St. Louis Railroad Company*, for the purpose of building a railroad through Arkansas from a point opposite or near Memphis, "on or near a direct line between the same and the city of St. Louis, Missouri, and running thence as

nearly as said company may deem it practicable in the direction of St. Louis, so as to reach a point on or connect with the St. Louis and Iron Mountain Railroad, or any other railroad or point thereon, in that general direction."

The charter was filed in the office of the Secretary of State of the State of Arkansas on the 6th day of March, 1854, and on the 18th day of the same month the Board of Commissioners of said company met and organized by the election of Ethel H. Porter, President of the Company, and J. T. Swayne, Secretary.

As the legal provision is thus obtained for building the Arkansas link of this road, we will now proceed to inquire into the probable length and cost of the same.

For the sake of avoiding circumlocution, we will designate the point on the boundary line between Missouri and Arkansas east of the St. Francis river, where this railroad will probably cross, by the name which is given to the strip of country there extending both into Missouri and Arkansas: that is Grand Prairie, although the village of Grand Prairie is not exactly at this point.

From this point to Memphis the distance on an air line is about 60 miles, being the same distance as from this point to Indian Ford. By the reports gathered from the experimental surveys of the Iron Mountain Railroad Company throughout various portions of the Swamp District, and from the facts stated by Mr. Ferguson, of Arkansas, the general character of the country from Indian Ford to Grand Prairie seems to be about the same as that from Grand Prairie to Memphis, and as the air line distance is also the same, therefore it is reasonable to make the same allowance for the length and cost of a practicable route from Grand Prairie to Memphis, as from Indian Ford to Grand Prairie.

Calculating then on this hypothesis the length of Grand Prairie and Memphis link is 70 miles, and the cost of construction of the same, ready for rolling stock, is $1260,000. Calculating the cost of rolling stock together with buildings and fixtures for same at the rate estimated for the Missouri portion, to wit: $4,000 per mile, 70 miles, it is $280,000, making the total cost of the Grand Prairie and Memphis road in running order.....$1,540,000

To which add the total cost of the St. Louis and Iron Mountain road to Grand Prairie in running order... 7,440,000

And we find the total cost of the road from St. Louis to Memphis.....$8,980,000

The total distance from St. Louis to Memphis by this route according to the above estimates is 290 miles, which with a speed on the road of 30 miles an hour brings St. Louis and Memphis within ten hours distance of each other.

Having ascertained the probable length and cost of the St. Louis and Memphis Railroad, we will proceed to an examination of the Memphis and New Orleans road.

The distance from Memphis to New Orleans on an air line is 342 miles. These two points are connected by a road in process of construction composed of three links, which are the "New Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad," reaching from New Orleans to Canton, the "Mississippi Central Railroad," reaching from Canton to Grenada, Miss., and the "Mississippi and Tennessee Railroad," reaching from Grenada to Memphis.

The distance from New Orleans to Canton, air line, is		175	miles
Do.	Canton to Grenada "	78	
Do.	Grenada to Memphis "	93	
Total distance by deviating links	"	346	
Do.	without deviating "	342	
Amount of deviation by the links	"	4	
By allowing on the sum total a deviation of		44	miles
from the air line distance of the links		346	
The length of the practicable route from Memphis to New Orleans is		390	miles

In order to show the progress and prospects of this combined enterprise in Louisiana, Mississippi and Tennessee, we will quote a paragraph from the memorial of the Mississippi and Tennessee Railroad Company to the St. Louis and Iron Mountain Railroad Company, dated 18th March, 1854:

"The greater portion of this route is already provided for. From New Orleans to the Mississippi State line the "Great Northern and Jackson road" is nearly completed, and will soon be finished all the way to Canton, Mi.; — thence the "Mississippi Central road" to Holly Springs passing Grenada, Mi., is under contract to be completed in 2½ years. From Grenada our road, the "Mississippi and Tennessee" completes the line to Memphis; and the means at our command warrant us in the confident expectation of its early consummation."

It will thus be seen that the southern and larger portion of the St. Louis, Memphis and New Orleans railroad is rapidly progressing with brilliant prospects of entire completion long before the

Memphis and St. Louis portion can be done, according to present indications.

But the presentation of these facts should stimulate the public mind with renewed activity in behalf of the St. Louis and Iron Mountain Railroad, that while this work is being built to the Mountain, means and spirit may be gained to drive it on to Memphis, that a respectable portion of the 2,000,000 acres of swamp land in South-east Missouri may be applied to its construction, and thereby to their own reclamation; their nett proceeds remaining a school fund vested in the stock of the Railroad Company. This is doubtless the best thing that could be done with a large portion of the swamp lands, both in Missouri and Arkansas; and it may be that half enough could be realized from these lands in Missouri and Arkansas together to build the road from Indian Ford to Memphis, 140 miles, the amount necessary to complete this portion, being, according to the above mentioned estimates, only $3,080,000. Means may be gained to prosecute this enterprise by arousing a spirit in Congress in behalf of a grant of lands for the Mississippi Valley Railroad, the St. Louis convention having sent them a memorial on this subject in December, 1852, and the Memphis convention having endorsed the memorial in June, 1853. This grant of land by Congress should be made liberal enough to meet one half the cost of building this road from St. Louis to Indian Ford, 150 miles. Then, the length of this road being the same from St. Louis to Arkansas, as the length of the North Missouri Railroad from St. Louis to Iowa, each one being by a singular coincidence just 220 miles, and as the cost of construction of the Iron Mountain Railroad is also equal to that of the North Missouri Railroad, and its value to the State also fully equal, it therefore follows that an equal amount of State credit should be granted to each. But the N. M R R. has received $2,000,000
while the Iron Mountain Railroad has received only 750,000

Leaving the claim of the I. M. R. R. for $1,250,000
of State credit, which it is but just and reasonable to suppose will be allowed by the Legislature as soon as it convenes.

Let then this Swamp Land grant, this Mississippi Valley Railroad grant, and this grant of $1,250,000 State credit be gained, while the contractors are building the road from St. Louis to the Iron Mountain, then means and spirit enough will be realized to drive this work on with energy to Memphis.

The people of St. Louis have already acted with a noble liberality towards their railroad enterprises. They have given $2,805,000 to the Pacific Railroad; and more than $2,700,000 to the Mississippi Valley Railroad, about one half of the last sum to the North Missouri portion, and the other half to the Iron Mountain portion, making the amount given by the city, county and private subscriptions of St. Louis to these railroads over $5,500,000. Besides, the people of St. Louis have given liberal aid to the railroads in Illinois, and all these works are progressing in every direction. And although the people of St. Louis have raised these means and shown this spirit, they would be ready and willing in case of an emergency to raise and show more. But, for what they have already done, they manifestly deserve the applause of the whole country, from the lakes to the Gulf, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and should, at the earliest possible moment, receive generous assistance from the State and National Governments, worthy of the magnanimity they have displayed.

The means of the St. Louis and Iron Mountain Railroad Company are as follows, to wit:

Subscription of the city of St. Louis	$500,000
" " county of St. Louis	500,000
Other corporate and private subscriptions	500,000
	$1,500,000
To this add State credit granted	750,000
Total amount of means at command	$2,250,000
And to this add the amount of State credit, which, as above shown, may be reasonably anticipated	1,250,000
and then we realize the amount of	$3,500,000

enough to complete the road beyond the Iron Mountain. To this add the Mississippi Valley Railroad grant and the Swamp Land grant, and thereupon the Company will soon gain means and spirit enough by their own credit, which will then be firmly established on a high and commanding position, to build up the whole line from St. Louis to Memphis with dispatch and ease.

When this is done, the railroad connection from New Orleans to St. Louis will be complete, while at the same time the North Missouri R. R. Co. together with the Iowa and Minnesota interests will be extending this connection to the Falls of St. Anthony, reducing the distance from New Orleans to the Falls by railroad to the same number of miles, New Orleans is from St. Louis, by the river, to wit: 1,200 miles.

ARTICLE VIII.

St. Louis, Paducah and Nashville Railroad Connection.

A significant idea of the enterprising spirit of the people and of the stability of St. Louis, may be derived from the fact that their city, county and private subscriptions to the railroads west of the Mississippi amount to $5,500,000, that the number of men now working on the Mississippi Valley Railroad—embracing the North Missouri and Iron Mountain Railroad—amounts to nearly 1,000, and on the Pacific Railroad to more than 1,000, that the account of receipts and expenditures for the city alone during the year ending 8th April, 1854, amounts to $1,041,697 42, that the surplus revenue of the last fiscal year amounted to $37,434 20-100, that its revenue last year was $725,966 84, and that the real estate held by the city in its own right is estimated by good authority at over $3,000,000, while the whole debt of the city might be met by its own property independent of its revenue, and moreover when railroad bonds were falling, and the tax-payers of the city and county were called upon to give additional aid to the Pacific railroad, they voted on the 8th May, 1854 to tax themselves $1,-200,000, to carry on the work out of their own resources, by an overwhelming majority.

The amount of aid given by the people of St. Louis to railroads in Illinois, the amount of manufacturing and commercial business done here, though too extensive to be condensed or even shadowed forth in this article, would enlarge and exalt the idea of the enterprising spirit of the people, and deepen the conviction of their rapid and continuous prosperity, in wealth and population, the number of inhabitants being acknowledged at present to be about 120,000.

One of the lines of railroads starting from St. Louis points towards Paducah. The Belleville and Illinoistown railroad was the first indication that way. The original object of this road was merely to connect St. Louis and Belleville, 14 miles. We are indebted to Mr. A. A. Van Wormer, for the following data of the present condition and stage of progress of this work:

"The graduation of the whole line is complete. Depot at Belleville (which is brick and is large and 1st class) is built. The cross ties are delivered. Two 1st class locomotives and 6 platform cars

are ready and all on the track at the river. The rails and chairs are ready. The track laying will commence in a few days, and it is confidently believed that the road will be done in thirty days thereafter. One mile and a half of track is already laid."

From this authority, it may be infered that the cars will be running from the Mississippi to Belleville early in the Fall.

By a clause in their charter, the Belleville and Illinoistown R. R. Co. extend their road to Alton on the one side and Murpheysborough on the other. The Alton line is 22 miles in length, of which the graduation of 18 miles is complete, and the remainder will soon be done.

An experimental survey has been made of the line from Belleville to the Illinois Central R R. through Murpheysborough, distance 76 miles. Cost of road in running order estimated on this survey, at within $2,000,000.

These two links with one on the Illinois Central R. R. of about 44 miles, connects St. Louis and Cairo, which chain of roads, being only 134 miles, will draw an immense amount of business between the north and south, and during the winter season, when the river is frozen or blocked up with ice between St. Louis and the mouth of the Ohio, will do not only the passenger and post-office business, but also the heavy freight business of the river, towards and from New Orleans and the whole southern portion of the Mississippi. Cairo must necessarily be a point of great importance, and the shortest road connecting it with St. Louis, which is this one, must pay large dividends to its owners, at all seasons, and above all in the winter.

The extension of the Belleville and Murpheysboro' road, in nearly a direct line, strikes Paducah ; the distance from its junction with the Illinois Central R. R. and Paducah being 50 miles, making the distance from St. Louis to Paducah 140 miles, which at reasonable railroad speed, is 6 hours. That the St. Louis and Paducah railroad connection may be fairly appreciated beyond even the valuable local advantages which are certain to be derived from the peculiarly rich soil and coal region through which the route runs, it is proper here to present a view of the enterprising spirit of the people of Paducah, and to consider the forces that are working within and around it, conspiring in raising it to an importance greater than even its good position might naturally have gained.

Situated at the confluence of the Ohio and Tennessee rivers, Paducah might naturally have gained a large portion of the trade of those rich valleys: yet the artificial channels of trade—the railroad avenues of wealth around Paducah were originally directed elsewhere. The Mobile and Ohio R. R. and the Illinois Central were both directed to Cairo; the Nashville, Louisville and Cincinnati railroads were also directed to other places. The trade of Paducah was in danger of being cut off on all sides, when, with watchful foresight, its people cast their eyes on the Mobile and Ohio railroad with a determination to turn this horn of plenty, that its fruits might fall at their own doors. They also cast their eyes across the Ohio, up the Wabash valley to Vincennes, with a determination to control a good share of the resources of those fertile fields. They laid their plans skillfully, and are now executing them with boldness, not only to defend but also to aggrandize their trade. Authentic reports show that they have built 15 miles of their road towards Mobile, and have a fair prospect of finishing it 25 miles to Mayfield this year, when 34 miles more will complete their connection with the main trunk in Tennessee. For more minute data on the subject of this enterprise we refer to the last report of the Mobile and Ohio Railroad Company published herewith.

We will now present a business sketch of Paducah itself, the materials being furnished at our request by the highest unofficial authority; and we are assured that the representation is within rather than beyond the reality. The sketch is just drawn, June, 1854. The business houses of Paducah number 67; 46 being dry goods and grocery stores, 3 clothing, 1 hardware and iron, 3 boot and shoe, 3 drug, 1 book and music, 1 China glass and Queensware, 1 horticultural and seed, 2 boat and ship chandlery, 2 watch and jewelry, 2 fancy and millinery, 1 variety, and 2 merchant Tailor stores.

The manufactories are as follows: 1 large stone flouring mill capable of turning out 300 bbls. per day, 3 large saw mills running three or more saws each, 2 tanneries, one extensive and run by steam, 1 steam chair factory, 1 large barrel factory, 1 porkhouse, 4 furniture manufactories, 2 saddle and harness, 1 small foundry, 4 blacksmith, 2 tinnery and sheet iron, 2 upholsteries, 1 carriage factory, 2 gunsmith shops, 1 tobacco warehouse, sales tri-weekly, 1 tobacco stemmery, 1 tobacco factory, 1 boat yard,

1 set marine railway for docking boats capable of hauling out any steamer afloat.

Of other buildings there are 7 hotels, the St. Francis built this last fall equal to any in the West, 2 livery stables, 7 churches, Old Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist, Episcopalean, Cumberland Presbyterian, Christian and Catholic; 2 colleges, one male and one female, 3 primary schools, 2 banks, one the Commercial Bank of Ky. with two branches, Mother Bank at this place, also a branch of the Bank of Louisville. 6 newspapers, one daily, one semi-weekly, four weekly, and one monthly, are published in Paducah. Population of Paducah, which in 1850 by census report was only 2,428, is now estimated at 4,000.

From this business sketch, from these indications of the enterprising spirit manifested in and around this place, from the well-known agricultural, mineral and commercial advantages it enjoys, Paducah must be considered a point of rising and great, if not commanding importance; and one with which St. Louis should be connected intimately by packet boats, and as speedily as possible by a direct railroad.

The argument in behalf of this railroad connection is strengthened by the consideration of its rapid extension to New Orleans, to Mobile, to Savannah and to Charleston. By the New Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad, and by the Mobile & Ohio Railroad, the connections with New Orleans and with Mobile will be established. From Savannah and from Charleston to Nashville continuous lines were opened and put in operation this year, therefore it is necessary to obtain only a connection with Nashville, in order to realize a complete one with the south-eastern Atlantic coast of the Union.

We have treated of this route from St. Louis via Paducah to Mayfield, Ky. We will now sketch the remainder of the same to Nashville.

From Mayfield, Ky., to Paris, Tenn., the distance is 36 miles. Here a connection may possibly be established with the Nashville and Northwestern Railroad, and if not at Paris, more surely at Reynoldsburg, on the bank of the Tennessee river, 24 miles further. From Reynoldsburg to Nashville the distance is 60 miles. This last link in the chain of railroad connection between St. Louis and Nashville is insured for its completion, as will be seen by reference to the law and the facts on this point published in the

Western Journal and Civilian, vol. 9, page 238, and vol. 10, page 365. By allowing 15 miles for deviations along the route from Mayfield to Nashville, 120 miles, and adding the distance from Paducah to Mayfield, 25 miles, we find the distance from Paducah to Nashville along this route 160 miles, and the distance from Paducah to St. Louis being 140 miles. St. Louis and Nashville are thus brought to within 300 miles, and at the speed of 30 miles an hour, to within 10 hours of each other.

Hoping to treat more fully hereafter of the profits to be derived by means of this railroad connection in stock, in trade, in political, and above all, in moral force, we will conclude the present article with a quotation from a letter written last winter in Charleston. S. C., by a Missourian of close observation and liberal mind, who had been traveling along the Tennessee river and the Chattanooga Railroad. He says:

"The trade of all that country from Paducah to Tuscumbia is now possessed by Louisville, and amounts to several millions annually. We ought to have it, and I am satisfied that if St. Louis would make the right sort of effort, she might, in a few years obtain it. They want groceries, iron in all shapes, manufactures of wood, but still more *flour* and *bacon*, the very articles we can furnish cheaper than Louisville; and they will pay for them in cotton."

THE MIDLAND ROAD.

We are informed that the engineer, who had charge of the survey of this route, made his report to the Board of Directors, at a meeting at Helena on the 29th ult. The report is highly favorable to the practicability of the route. The Board located the road by Clarendon, and contracts for grading have already or will be let out in a short time. Ground will be broken at Helena on the 4th of July, where the people of the State are invited to attend and participate in the ceremonies.

LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

From the French of Madame De Stael.

Germany—Taste.

Those who cultivate taste are prouder of it, than those who cultivate genius. Taste is in literature, as the *bon ton* in society; it is considered as a proof of fortune, of birth, or at least of the customs which pertain to both; while genius may spring forth from the brain of an artisan who never had any relations with fine company. In every land where vanity may be found, taste will be stationed in the first rank, because it separates classes, and is a sign of rallying among all the individuals of the first. In every land where the power of ridicule is employed, taste will be accounted as one of the first advantages, for it serves above all things in aiding one to distinguish that which it is necessary to avoid. The feeling of propriety is a part of taste, and it is an excellent weapon to ward off the blows aimed by self-conceited persons; in fine, the time may come when an entire nation will place itself in the aristocracy of good taste, by relation with others, and by culture become the only fine company of Europe; and this probable position may be realized by France, where the spirit of society rules so supremely, that it has some excuse for this pretension.

But taste, in its application to Fine Arts, is peculiarly different from taste in its application to social proprieties: while it forces men to bestow upon us a consideration transient as our life, that which one does not, is at least as necessary as that which he does; for the great world is so easily hostile, that it is necessary to make extraordinary concessions to gain the advantage of being free from annoyance: but taste in poesie belongs to nature, and ought to be creator like it; the principles o' this taste are therefore altogether different from those which depend upon the relations of society.

The confusion of these two styles is the cause of such opposing judgments in literature; the French judge the Fine Arts as proprieties, and the Germans the proprieties as the Fine Arts: in the relations with society it is necessary to defend one's self, in the relations with poesie it is necessary to abandon one's self. If one considers every thing as a man of the world, he will not feel nature; if one considers every thing as an artist. he will want the tact which society alone can give. If it is necessary to transfer

to the arts only the imitation of fine company, the French alone are truly capable of the work; but more latitude in the composition is necessary to arouse the imagination and the soul powerfully. I know that one can, justly, raise the objection, that our three great tragic writers, while complying with established rules, have raised themselves to the most sublime elevation. Some men of genius, reaping in a field altogether new, have known how to render themselves illustrious, in spite of the difficulties which they were obliged to overcome, but the cessation of the progress of art, since their days,—is it not a proof that there are too many obstacles in the course which they pursued?

"Good taste in literature is, in some respects, like order under despotism, it is important to enquire at what price it may be obtained."* *In politics*, says M. Necker, *it is necessary to allow every liberty, that is reconcilable with order.* I will reverse the maxim, in saying: it is necessary, in literature, to allow every taste which is reconcilable with genius: for if it is repose, which is important in the social state; in literature, on the contrary, it is the interest, the movement, the emotion, which is important, to which taste, in itself considered, is often an enemy.

One might propose a treaty of peace between the styles of judgment, on artists and men of the world, among the Germans and the French. The French should abstain from the condemnation of even a fault of propriety, if the fault were redeemed by a strong thought or a true sentiment. The Germans should prohibit every thing that offends natural taste, every thing that describes those images which the senses repel: any philosophical theory, how ingenious soever it may be, cannot be sustained against the repugnance of the senses, so a poetic work, founded on proprieties, should not be made to hinder involuntary emotions. The most spiritual of the German writers have admirably maintained that, to comprehend the conduct of the daughters of King Lear toward their father, it was necessary to disclose the barbarity of the age in which they lived, and to suffer the Duke of Corneille, excited by Regan, to crush out the eye of Glocester with his heel, on the stage; our imagination always will revolt against this spectacle, and demand that we should gain sublime beauties by other means. But the French direct all their literary criticisms against the prediction of the witches of Macbeth, the appearance of the

* Suppressed by the censure.

ghost of Banquo, &c., yet one may be none the less shaken, from even the bottom of the soul, by the terrible effects which they wish to proscribe.

One cannot teach good taste in the arts, like the *bon ton* in society; for the *bon ton* serves to conceal that of which we are in want, while above all things a creative spirit is necessary in the arts: good taste cannot hold the place of talent in literature, for the better proof of taste, where one has not talent, will be to write nothing. If one dare say it, perhaps it may be found, that in France now, the racers on this track have too much rein, and very little spirit, and that in Germany much literary independence produces results not even so brilliant.

THE CROSS.

"And her hands of alabaster pressed upon her heart
a crucifix of ebony."—ATALA.

1.

Hoc signo vince, was the Roman word
Emblazoned on their standard with the cross.
Hoc signo vince, in the heart is heard,
When the pure spirit strives with human dross.

2.

This sign wins glory, yes, in every field—
Of war, of peace, of science and of art,
Of thought of feeling—for tis Faith will wield
A power to move mountains from the heart.

3.

"Sweet are the uses of adversity,"
As dying grapes, when crushed, are turned to wine,
So suffering patience sets the spirit free,
From earth, with transports of a bliss divine..

THE WAY TO HEAVEN.

Eye has not seen, ear heard, nor heart conceived,
And very few have, as they should, believed,
The harmony that reigns in Heaven above,
Where all is one continual flow of love.
There is perfection of etherial bliss,
Here imperfection in a world like this;
Yet imperfection is not total here below:
Else there would be no feeling but of woe.
No. Right and wrong are seen on every side,
And if one could distinguish and divide,
The right from wrong, and would the right pursue,
That one would dwell in bliss; as Heaven is true.
One may find goodness in all things and hours,
As bees find honey in all kinds of flowers.

LET ME THINK IN MY HEART.

1.

Let me think in my heart!—
What can one compare,
A bright spirit of one,
Warm hearted and fair,
With, on earth or in air.

2.

There's the moon and the star,
Bird, diamond and rose;
But the warm hearted one
Is far above those.—
What's like her—Who knows?

3.

Upon and around us,
Yet still far away,
From Heaven there comes,
On a bright morn of May,
A warm, beautiful ray.

4.

Like an Angel of Light,
And Love; and its dart,
Like the thought of one
Who thinks from her heart,
With joy makes nature start.

5.

Heartless ones like the moon,
Which shines in the night,
Give cold consolation,
With a borrowed light,
With sickly softness bright.

6.

But, who thinks from her heart,
She, shines like the sun,
Her thoughts, like its rays,
Light and warm every one,
She does what should be done.

SKETCH OF A BEAUTY.

1.

Oh! that I had the power to portray,
With each fine tint, the beautiful array
Of virtues which adorn her character.—
Almost divine, she never seems to err.

2.

Her face and figure well might charm all eyes,
There love in harmony with beauty vies;
But 'tis her heart and soul that I admire,
Which mingling glow with calm celestial fire.

3.

'Tis that immortal part, that heavenly spirit,
Which came from God, on earth here to inherit.
A form of dust, from which in time 't will burst,
And then return to God, from whence it came at first.

4.

Eve has few daughters like her on the earth;
And few indeed can comprehend her worth;
She, in this world, retains her heavenly dye,
Gentle and pure as snow flakes in the sky.

5

Painters ne'er formed a character so fair,
Poets ne'er drew one from the realms of air,
A lovelier one, this world, has never trod,
And none can represent her but her God.

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ARTICLE I.

The Interest Laws of Missouri.

At an early period in the history of the Western Journal, we published our views touchiug a variety of subjects relating to the public economy of the State of Missouri. Several of the leading measures which we then discussed and advocated, have since been adopted by the General Assembly; and we are happy in the belief that when matured their fruits will fully vindicate the wisdom and patriotism which controlled the councils of the State upon those occasions. Others, however, have been regarded by the Legislature with less favor; and though some of them have been several times rejected, yet so strong is our conviction of their soundness and utility that we feel compelled by a sense of social duty to urge them again upon the consideration of the people.

Of all the measures which we have advocated, none have met with more violent and decided opposition than the proposition to repeal the law limiting the rate of interest. At this we were surprised and disappointed; for when it is remembered that the laws against usury, and also those limiting the rate of interest, are mostly the offspring of ignorance, tyrany and superstition originating in a social condition differing in almost all respects from that of the people of this country at the present day; and, that those laws have been gradually yielding to the light and progressive intelligence of modern civilization, it must be regarded as a curious fact that in the year 1847 the State of Missouri, making a retrograde movement, should reduce the rate of interest from ten to six per cent. per annum. Missouri was a new State possessing an incalculable amount of natural wealth which had long remained undeveloped for the want of money. Remote from the great commercial

emporiums, her exchanges were effected at great cost to both producers and consumers : she needed money to open her mines, to build up and establish manufactures, to commence and carry on a system of public improvements, to facilitate the operations of commerce, to invite immigration, and give encouragement to industry in all its branches.

This state of things being perceived and the scarcity of money deplored, it was natural that a remedy should have been sought by the people; but who except a Missouri legislator could have imagined that that remedy was to be found in an act of the General Assembly reducing the rate of interest? Is it reasonable to conclude that the General Assembly of Missouri was composed of men so totally ignorant of the obvious principles of public economy as not to perceive that by reducing the price of money they would drive it from the market, and that the scarcity occasioned by the act would augment the necessities of the community and enable the grinding money dealer to exact ruinous prices of the needy borrower as a premium for evading the law? Surely such obvious consequences must have occurred to the mind of any individual possessing sufficient intelligence to have authorized his admission into the councils of the State. But whether the interest law of 1847 resulted from ignorance of the principles of public economy, or whether the ancient prejudices against usury and usurers were insiduously brought to bear upon the subject to promote the ends of individuals, it may be confidently affirmed that with accidental exceptions the money lender who evades the law is the only individual in the community benefitted by its enactment.

This assertion is abundantly verified by the financial operations of our people since the passage of the present law regulating interest on money. The average rate of interest paid on money borrowed upon bond and mortgage is now at least fifty per cent. higher than it was in the year 1846; and it is a fact well known to all men acquainted with business in St. Louis, at that time, that the interest on loans upon real estate securities advanced materially immediately after the passage of the act.

The effects produced in Missouri by the adoption of this policy is in accordance with the history of the usury laws of every other country of which we have any knowledge, except perhaps that of the Jewish nation. But it is to be observed that there was a principle of political economy involved in the Jewish law calculated to

produce consequences directly the reverse of one of the principal effects of the Missouri statute. The Jews were allowed to bargain for and exact any rate of interest from a stranger; by this provision in their law a system of "free trade" in the precious metals was established between them and other nations; which was eminently calculated to bring money into their country. Under the operations of the Jewish institutions the interest realized from the loan of their capital was so much taken from the wealth of other nations and added to their own. But it is far otherwise in our case; for while the Missouri law is calculated to prevent money from coming into the State, the exorbitant rate of interest realized by the capitalist is taken from the hard earnings of our own people, who if they borrow at all are compelled to pay the usurer his own price for violating or evading the laws of the State.

In all Mahomedan countries the coran forbids the taking of any interest for the use of money. But we learn from good authority that the market rate of interest in those countries is from ten to twenty times higher than in Europe.*

By the old Roman law of the twelve tables, the rate of interest allowed as legitimate was the *usura centesima*, which was strictly one per cent. a month; and has been supposed by some to have amounted to twelve, by others to ten per cent. in the year. We are informed that "the Roman laws against excessive usury were frequently renewed, and constantly evaded. The same principle, sanctioned by mistaken religious opinions, pervaded the laws of all countries in which the civil jurisprudence prevailed.†

In England, anterior to the reign of Henry VIII., all loans of money upon interest were regarded as usurious and criminal. In 1546 the first law was passed to legalize the taking of interest, which was then fixed at the rate of ten per cent per annum; but the prejudices against usury remained so strong that the law was repealed in the following reign. In 1571, during the reign of Elisabeth, an act was passed violently condemning all *usury;* but permitting ten per cent. *interest* to be paid. In noticing the passing of this act, Hume remarks that "by a lucky accident in language, which has great effect on men's ideas, the invidu-

* Cyclopaedia Britanica, vol. 12, title Interest.

Brande's Encyclopaedia of Science, Literature and Art.

ous word *usury*, which formerly meant the taking of any interest for money, came now to express, only the taking of exorbitant and illegal interest."

In 1624, interest was reduced to eight per cent.; in 1672, in the reign of Charles II., it was reduced to six per cent., and finally to five per cent., in 1713. But the many plans devised to evade the law afford strong evidence that the rate of interest allowed by the last statute was far below the maximum market value. One of the methods resorted to in England for the purpose of evading the statute was the sale of annuities which in time became a serious evil; and in the year 1818, a committee was appointed by the House of Commons to investigate and make report upon the usury laws then existing.

According to a custom of parliament, the adoption of which we respectfully recommend to the legislature of Missouri, individuals whose position and pursuits qualified them to enlighten the committee in respect to the subject before it were examined, and their statements and opinions embodied in its report to the House. Mr. Sugden, an eminent lawyer, stated before the committee that

"When the market rate of interest rose above the legal rate the landed proprietor was compelled to resort to some shift to evade the usury laws. For this purpose, he informed the committee he had known annuities granted for *three* lives, at ten per cent. upon fee-simple estates unincumbered, and of great annual value in a register county. He had also known annuities granted for *four* lives, and more would have been added, but for the danger of equity setting aside the transaction on account of the inadequacy of the consideration. Latterly many annuities were granted for a term of years certain, not depending upon lives. On being asked whether, if there were no laws limiting the rate of interest, better terms could or could not have been obtained, Mr. Sugden answered, I am decidedly of opinion that *better terms* could have been obtained, for there is a stigma which attaches to men who lend money upon annuities that drives all respectable men out of market. Nothing, Mr. Sugden added, *short of a repeal of the usury laws* can put a stop to the abuses which attend grants of annuities: they strongly encourage a spirit of gambling; for as the repayment of the money lent cannot be enforced, and the annuity is granted upon a contingency, the borrower too frequently neglects to provide for the payment of the loan, and trusts to chance for the determination of the annuity."

"The laws against usury, says Mr. Holland, partner of the house of Baring, Brothers and Company, and one of the best informed merchants of tho country, drive men in distress, or in want of money, to much more disastrous modes of raising it than they

would adopt if no usury laws existed. The land owner requires money to increase his live stock, or improve his land, or for any other purpose, at a period when the government is borrowing money at above five per cent., no one will then lend to the land-owner because his money is worth more to him than the law allows him to take; the land owner must, therefore, either give up his improvements, or borrow money on annuity interests, on much more disadvantageous terms than he could have done if no law existed against usury. The man in trade, in want of money for an unexpected demand, or disappointed in his returns, must fulfill his engagements, or forfeit his credit. He might have borrowed money at six per cent., but the law allows no one to lend it to him, and he must sell some of the commodity he holds, at a reduced price, in order to meet his engagements. For example, he holds sugar which is worth 80*s*., but he is compelled to sell it immediately at 70*s*. to the man who will give him cash for it, and thus actually borrows money at twelve and a half per cent., which had the law allowed to him, he might have borrowed from a money dealer at six per cent."

"It is known to every merchant, that *cases of this kind are common occurrences in every commercial town, and more especially in the metropolis.* A man in distress for money pays more interest, owing to the usury laws, than he would if no such laws existed; because now he is obliged to go to some of the disreputable money lenders to borrow, as he knows the respectable money lender will not break the laws of his country. The disreputable money lender knows that he has the *ordinary risk* of his debtor to incur in lending his money, and he has further to encounter the *penalty of the law*, for both of which risks the borrower must pay. If no usury laws existed, in common cases, and when a person is respectable, he might obtain a loan from the respectable money lender, who would then only have to calculate his ordinary risk, and the compensation for the use of the money."

The appendix to the report of the committee contains much other testimony corroborating the statements and opinions of Mr. Sugden and Mr. Holland; and the committee admitting the force of the evidence agreed to the following resolutions:

"1st. That it is the opinion of this committee that the laws regulating or restraining the rate of interest have been extensively evaded, and have failed of the effect of imposing a maximum on such rate; and that, of late years, from the constant effect of the market rate of interest above the rate limited by law, they have added to the expenses incurred by borrowers on real security, and that such borrowers have been compelled to resort to the mode of granting annuities on lives; a mode which has been made a cover for obtaining a higher rate of interest than the rate limited by law, and has further subjected the borrowers to enormous charges, or

forced them to make very disadvantageous sales of their estates."

"2d. That it is the opinion of this committee, that the construction of such laws, as applicable to the transactions of commerce at present carried on, have been attended with much uncertainty as to the legality of many transactions of frequent occurrence, and consequently been productive of much embarrassment and litigation."

The committee conclude their report by recommending a repeal of the usury laws; but notwithstanding their recommendation and the clear and satisfactory nature of the evidence on which it was founded, the popular prejudice was so strong against their repeal, that the measure failed, and the law remained unchanged until the year 1833. The first inroad upon this relic of a barbarous age was made by a provision in the act renewing the charter of the bank of England; by which all bills of exchange and promissory notes, not having more than three months to run previous to their maturity were excepted from the operations of the usury law, and might be discounted at any rate of interest agreed on by the parties. This act sapped the foundation of the usury laws of England, and opened the way for the introduction of a more rational and just policy. In 1837, by the act I. Vic. c. 70, the provisions respecting usury contained in the act of 1833, were extended to all such mercantile instruments not having more than twelve months to run before they are due. And by 3. and 4. Vic. c. 83, simple loans above £10, not secured by real estate, were also excepted from the statute of usury.

And here let us observe that while the people of Great Britain were extricating themselves, step by step, from an unwise policy which originated in superstition, and in ignorance of the true principles of political economy, the public mind in the State of Missouri was undergoing a change which prepared it in 1847 for the adoption of a barbarism which had been condemned and repudiated not only by theoretical writers but by the best practical economists of every civilized country.

But it may be said, the modification of the usury laws of England is an experiment of too recent date to establish the fact that usury laws can be abolished in a State without raising the market rate of interest.

On this as on all subjects of legislation, the British parliament proceded with deliberation and much caution. Fifteen years

elapsed after the investigation of the subject by the committee of the House of Commons, in 1818, before the first act was passed affecting the usury laws. Nor does that appear to have been a direct and independent movement, but was introduced in the nature of a detail in the act rechartering the bank of England. The initiatory step thus made, has been followed by subsequent enactments until for all practical purposes except in the case of loans on real estate, the usury laws of England have been abolished. And we learn that within the last few months a bill has been introduced in the House of Commons to repeal this last remnant of a branch of political economy at war with the rights and interests of a free people.

In presenting this bill, the Chancellor of the Exchequer is reported to have made the following remarks in explaining its objects:

"The usury laws were already repealed, except in a single instance, and the measure was chiefly intended to sweep away a mass of useless legislation. Tracing the history of the subject, he observed that the great offender against the usury laws has been the State. The superstitious notions on the subject, partly Judaic, partly Mohomedan, had disappeared, and Parliament had disposed of the restrictions one by one, until the only one which remained was that affecting loan of money secured on real estate. Explaining the great inconvenience which had been occasioned in Scotland by the existing restriction in regard to mortgages on land, and in England in regard to railway debentures, he observed the usury laws had driven men to an enormous system of evasion of the law. Let us, he urged, fully recognize free trade in reference to money, and let those who desired to borrow, obtain money at the current price of the day."

But besides her own experience, England had an example in Holland, her near neighbor, where no usury laws or laws regulating the rate of interest had been in operation for ages; and we believe that it is generally known and admitted that the average rate of interest in Holland is lower than in any other part of Europe.

Having written and published two articles "on laws regulating interest" in the preceding volumes of this work,* in which we examined and discussed at large the principles and practical operations of such laws, we find it difficult to adduce arguments here without reiterating what we have published elsewhere. Indeed, to our

* Vide Vol. IV, p. 142. Vol. VIII, p. 261.

view, the argument is all on one side, and all that can be required to convince any unprejudiced mind of the folly and injustice involved in usury laws is a plain statement of their operations.

The only excuse that we have heard of for opposing the repeal of the present interest law in Missouri is, that under the former law the merchants were in the habit of claiming ten per cent. interest of their customers, and inasmuch as that rate was allowed by law, the customer could not refuse to pay it without endangering his reputation as an honorable and fair dealer. And hence it is infered that if the former law be re-enacted, the maximum rate of interest will again be claimed and established by the merchants. To this there is a ready answer: it will be in the power of every one to make his own contract, and it will be as convenient in all cases to stipulate in respect to the rate of interest, as to settle on the price of the goods to be purchased. But even this objection will be removed by repealing all limitation, and leaving the entire subject open to contract. *That is doubtless the true principle and the correct policy.* But where no terms are agreed on let the law fix a reasonable rate by which the rights of the parties may in all cases be determined. This is the policy adopted by Wisconsin, and we were pleased to observe that it was approved by Hon. R. W. Wells, Judge of the U. S. District Court, in an able article from his pen on the subject of usury, published in the fifth volume of the Western Journal, page 288. The Wisconsin law is in the following words: §. 1. Any rate of interest agreed upon by the parties in contract, specifying the same in writing, shall be legal and valid. §. 2. When no rate of interest is agreed upon, or specified in a note or contract, seven per cent. shall be the legal rate.

Such a law, we think, would remove the only plausable objection that we have ever heard urged against the repeal of the interest laws of this state.

In fixing the rate in cases left open by the parties to the contract, the average market rate for a series of years would seem to be the proper criterion; but it would be better, perhaps, to establish it below than above that point.

Money is an article of commerce, and is moreover one of its principal agents. It is one of the properties of money as an article of commerce, to go to the market where the demand is the most extensive and unremitting; but as an agent, it goes where, after deducting all costs and risks, the highest price can be obtained with the greatest certainty for its services.

If one State or nation place an arbitrary price upon its hire and that should be below the rates which can be obtained in some other country, it will leave the community where the price has been thus depressed and go where better wages can be had. But the high rate of interest occasioned by usury laws, will not bring money into a country except such amounts as may be introduced by the speculator and hard dealer; who having no respect for the law are willing to risk its penalties for the profits which they hope to realize by evading its sanctions.

But it is useless to enlarge upon a topic which must be plain to the understanding of all intelligent, unprejudiced minds. We have endeavored to discharge our duty touching a subject which, in our opinion, is most intimately connected with the prosperity of the State in a pecuniary point of view; and one which, as we believe, affects in no small degree the moral and social condition of the people.

By preventing the transfer of money from other countries to Missouri to be let out on interest, the usury laws operate materially against the establishment and growth of manufactures, against the development of our mineral wealth, against the operations of commerce, and against the progress of all works of public improvement; while the evasions which daily occur familiarize the mind of the citizen to a sense of disrespect and even contempt for the laws of the State.

A law so fruitful of evils, and so barren of benefits except to a class of individuals caring little for the common welfare, is a reproach to the State. And should the next General Assembly refuse or neglect to repeal it, that body will do injustice to its constituency, and stultify itself in the estimation of the enlightened Public economists of every civilized country.

In view of the subject in all its aspects, we say to the people and to the General Assembly of Missouri, renounce entirely this relic of barbarism and superstition. Let trade in money be as free as in all other commodities; place the conscientious and law-abiding citizen upon an equal footing with the unscrupulous law-evading usurer; and the certain consequences will be—a greater abundance of money and less temptation to the people to evade or violate the laws of the country.

ARTICLE II.

Limited Partnership.

The object of limited partnerships is to enable individuals possessing capital to become interested in mercantile, manufacturing or other branches of industry without hazarding the entire amount of their estates.

There are individuals in almost every community who possess industry, skill and other qualities fitting them for the management of business, but destitute of the means necessary to enable them to carry on their vocations upon their own account. These qualifications may be justly regarded in the light of individual capital, and also as constituting an important element of social wealth. The prosperity and happiness of communities, under every form of government, must depend in a great degree upon the nature of the associations between accumulated capital and industry. Hence it becomes the duty of the legislator to enquire whether there be anything in existing laws calculated to hinder accumulated wealth from forming more intimate and profitable relations with industry, intelligence and moral worth.

We admit the common law principle which makes each and every member of a partnership liable for all the debts of the firm to be just, both in an individual and social aspect. But we are persuaded that the policy of the common law may be modified and improved without materially affecting the justice of its operations. By authorizing individuals to enter into limited partnerships under proper restrictions, one ground of objection to subjecting their means to the management and control of others will be removed; and it is reasonable to conclude that if such a law existed, the number of associations between capitalists and individuals possessing only business qualifications, would be greatly enlarged.

Such a modification of the present law would tend to diversify the pursuits of the community by removing a part of the difficulties which lie in the way of enterprising, intelligent and worthy men who happen to be destitute of pecuniary means. It would afford a safe and most gratifying way of enabling individuals to assist their relations or friends in commencing business upon a solid basis, instead of leaving them to struggle with the almost in-

surmountable difficulties incident to every branch of industry not based upon a reasonable amount of capital.

While we do not claim for this measure the degree of consideration due to a system of banking, or to the repeal of the usury laws, yet, it is to be regarded as an important feature in an enlightened and liberal system of public economy. Within the period of a few years past, Missouri has entered upon a new career. She has undertaken works of great magnitude, and doubtless of great utility; the prosperity of the people at home, and the character of the State abroad, depends in no small degree upon the successful achievement of her schemes of improvement, and it behooves her legislators to discard the prejudices which have in times past retarded her progress, and adopt all such measures as are calculated to invite capital from abroad, and call into active and efficient service every useful faculty of the people, whether physical, mental or moral.

ARTICLE III.

Valley of the Ohio.

BY MANN BUTLER, ESQ.

Continued from page 172, vol. XII. No. 3.

MISSION OF FATHER GIBAULT FROM KASKASKIA TO VINCENNES IN 1778. HIS SUCCESS IN REDUCING IT UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF VIRGINIA. CLARK'S NOTIONS OF INDIAN NEGOTIATIONS. GREAT INDIAN COUNCIL AT CAHOKIA; CEREMONIES, SPEECHES. RECAPTURE OF VINCENNES BY THE BRITISH. CAPT. HELM. GOV. HAMILTON. BRITISH PLAN OF CONQUEST FOR THE WESTERN COUNTRY. CLARK'S PLAN FOR RECOVERING VINCENNES FROM THE BRITISH.

For the gallant and well executed movement against Kaskaskia and Cahokia, Clark with his brave officers and men received the thanks of the House of Delegates of Virginia, "for their extraordinary resolution and perseverance in so hazardous an enterprise, and for the important services thereby rendered their country."*

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* This vote was as follows:

IN THE HOUSE OF DELEGATES, }
Monday, 23d November, 1778. }

Whereas authentic information has been received that Lieutenant Colonel George Rogers Clark, with a body of Virginia militia, has reduced the British posts in the western part of this Commonwealth, on the Mississippi and its

This is the first public testimonial of Clark's services to his native State, and the republic at large; and well and most justly did he, his officers and men deserve them.

But though Clark had met with a success so much beyond his means and almost beyond his expectations; although the country was apparently subjected and even attached to the American government, yet, his uneasiness was great. He was fully aware of the critical delicacy of his situation; and the necessity of exerting all the address he was master of, to maintain his position with service to his country and honor to himself. A close understanding was cultivated with the Spanish officers on the opposite side of the Mississippi; as every influence was required to counteract the extended influence of the British.

They had distributed the bloody belt and hatchet from Lake Superior to the Mississippi and Ohio. In this long chain of intrigue with the Indians, Post St. Vincent, now better known as Vincennes, formed an important link; owing not only to the warlike character of the adjacent tribes, but also to their contiguity to Kaskaskia, and the settlements of Kentucky.

Yet its capture was utterly beyond the power of the handful of troops, "joined by every man in Kentucky;"† Clark therefore resorted to other means. The American soldiers were instructed to speak of the Falls of Ohio, as the head quarters of the army, from which the present troops were only a detachment; that reinforcements were daily expected from that point, which was fortifying; and that when they arrived, more extensive military movements would take place. Some such artifice was deemed necessary to excuse the apparent rashness of invading the Illinois with so small a force.

Courts of civil jurisdiction were likewise established by Clark, which were held by French judges freely chosen by the people, leaving an appeal to Clark.

About this time, M. Gabriel Cerre, who was before mentioned, uneasy that his family and property should be alone kept under guard, at Kaskaskia, and fearful of venturing into the power of

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branches, whereby great advantage may accrue to the common cause of America, as well as to this Commonwealth in particular;

Resolved, that the thanks of this House are justly due to the said Col. Clark and the brave officers and men under his command, for their extraordinary resolution and perseverance in so hazardous an enterprise, and for their important services thereby rendered their country.

Test. E. RANDOLPH, C. H. D.

† Memoirs of Clark.

an American officer without a safe conduct, procured the recommendation of the Spanish governor of St. Louis, as well as the commandant at Ste. Genevieve supported by the influence of the greater part of the citizens; for the purpose of obtaining this security. It was all in vain; Col. Clark peremptorily refused it, and intimated that he wished to hear no more such applications; he understood, he said, that M. Cerre was a "sensible man," and if he were innocent of the charge of inciting the Indians against the Americans, he need not be afraid of delivering himself up. Backwardness would only increase suspicion against him. Shortly after this expression of Clark's sentiments, M. Cerre, to whom they were no doubt communicated, repaired to Kaskaskia, and before visiting his family immediately waited on Col. Clark who informed him, that the crime with which he stood charged, was encouraging the Indians in their murders and devastations on our own frontiers. An enormity, continued Clark, whose perpetrators, it behooved every civilized people to punish, whenever they got such violators of the laws of honorable warfare within their power. To this accusation Mr. Cerre frankly replied, that he was a mere merchant, and had never been concerned in affairs of State beyond the interests of his business. In fine this eminent French merchant declared his willingness to meet the strictest enquiry into the only heinous charge against him. This was everything the American commander required; he then desired M. Cerre to retire into another room, while he sent for his accusers. They immediately attended followed by the greater part of the inhabitants. M. Cerre was summoned to confront them: the parties were told by Col. Clark that he had no disposition to condemn any man unheard; that the accused was now present, and he [Clark] was ready to do justice to the civilized world by punishing him, if guilty of inciting Indians to commit their enormities on helpless women and children. The accusers began to whisper to one another and retire until but one was left of six or seven at first. This person was asked for his proof of the charges against M. Cerre; but he had none to produce, and the French merchant was honorably acquitted, not more to his own satisfaction than to that of his neighbors and friends. M. Cerre delighted at the fair and generous treatment he had met with from Col. Clark, immediately took the oath of allegiance and became a "most valuable" friend to the American cause.

So successful was the management of Clark, that whether he

bribed or whether he punished, both methods were made conducive to the public interest. In this case, as in that of the inhabitants of Kaskaskia in general, he kept up an appearance of rigor for the purpose of enhancing the indulgence he wished and determined to employ; reserve in favors was a common feature in his policy.

Post St. Vincents still continued to occupy the thoughts of Clark as a point of great importance to the safety of his present position, and to the extension of the Virginia dominion. "It was never," he says, "out of my mind." It had indeed occupied his thoughts, on his first descent of the Ohio river; and was only relinquished at that time, from his weakness. These early inclinations were renewed by his success at Kaskaskia; and he sent for M. Gibault, the Roman catholic priest of this village, as well as of St. Vincents.

This gentleman, who subsequently received the public thanks of Virginia for his distinguished services, had been steadily attached to the American cause. He readily gave Col. Clark every information he desired; told him that Gov. Abbot, the commandant, had lately gone from St. Vincents on business to Detroit; that a military expedition from the Falls of Ohio against St. Vincents, (which Clark pretended to meditate,) was scarcely necessary. This patriotic priest offered, if it met the approbation of Colonel Clark, "to take the business on himself, and he had no doubt of his being able to bring that place over to the American interest, without," he said, "my being at the trouble of marching against it."

Nor is it unfair to believe that this patriotic clergyman may have taken into consideration the interests of his parishioners of St. Vincents, by trying to save them from the chances of military violence, as well as to promote the extension of the new country of his adoption. The generous and equal spirit justly exhibited by Col. Clark to the Roman Catholics of the Illinois, and which Protestant bigotry had too rarely imitated, together with his paternal administration, all united to propagate American influence, and extend its arms over these Roman Catholic villages.

To the offers of M. Gibault Clark readily assented; for it was the fondest wish of his heart; yet he scarcely ventured to indulge it. At the request of M. Gibault, Doctor La Forge was associated with him as a temporal member of the embassy. The prin-

cipal charge of the business was placed in the hands of the good priest.

On the 14th of July, the French gentlemen accompanied by a spy of Clark, (an auxiliary which he seems hardly even to have omitted in the missions he employed,) set off for St. Vincents, or O. Post.* In two or three days, after the arrival of this rather extraordinary embassy, and the enjoyment of full explanation between the priest and his flock, the inhabitants threw off the yoke of the British government, and assembling in a body at the church, took the oath of allegiance to the *Commonwealth of Virginia.* A commandant was elected, and the American flag immediately displayed over the fort, to the astonishment of the Indians.

Thus again fell another of the French settlements, founded in all probability about 1735.† This event is to be attributed to the friendly influence of M. Gibault, added to the good will of the inhabitants towards the Americans, as the friends and allies of France, and now enemies to their old antagonists, the English. The savages were told by their French friends, "that their old Father, the King of France, had come to life again, and was mad with them for fighting for the English; that if they did not wish the land to be bloody with war, they must make peace with the Americans."

About the 1st of August, 1778, M. Gibault and party returned with the joyful intelligence of having peaceably adjusted everything at St. Vincents, in favor of the American interest; no less to the astonishment of Clark, than to his gratification and that of the inhabitants of Kaskaskia.

A new source of perplexity now opened in the mind of Colonel Clark; the three months for which his men had enlisted now expired. But the discretionary authority so wisely lodged with an officer acting on so remote a stage, and under such embarrassing difficulties, determined him to strain his authority to preserve the public interest, for which it was conferred upon him. He could not divert himself of the only American power on which he could rely, in any emergency, without hazarding the whole fruit of his bold and successful expedition.

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* A corruption of the French. Au Post, as it was often called.

† See an elaborate discussion of the foundation of Vincennes, by the esteemed, truthful and inquisitive Perkins, 66, 67, 2d Edit. Annals of the West.. Bancrof, III, 346.

He therefore re-enlisted his men on a new footing; raised a company among the native inhabitants, commanded by their own officers; established a garrison at Kaskaskia under the command of Capt. Williams, and another at Cahokia under that of Capt. Bowman.

While Capt. William Linn (formerly commemorated, in an early descent of the Mississippi,) who had accompanied the expedition, as a volunteer, took charge of the men who wished to return; he also had orders from Col. Clark to establish a fort at the Falls of Ohio.

On their arrival in Kentucky, Capt. Linn executed his orders by building a stockade fort at the termination of the present 12th street, on the easterly side of a large ravine, which in 1832 opened into the river. Here was planted the thrifty germ of Louisville, now the emporium of Kentucky, which seems fairly destined to grow with the countless prosperity of this great republic with whose remotest commerce and union she is vitally connected. Captain John Montgomery was also dispatched to Richmond, in Virginia, in charge of M. Rocheblave, the British commandant of Kaskaskia.*

The governor of Virginia was informed of Clark's proceedings through Capt. Montgomery, and his wish that a civil commandant should be appointed to take charge of the political affairs of this secluded portion of the Commonwealth.

In consequence of this recommendation, an act was passed by the legislature of Virginia, in October 1778, enacting that all the

* The fort here mentioned at Louisville was, in 1782, succeeded by a larger one, built by the regular troops, assisted by the militia from all the settled parts of the *District of Kentucky.* It was situated between the present (1833) 6 h and 8th streets, in the northern side of Main street, immediately on the bank of the river. In honor of the third republican governor of Virginia, it was called Fort *Nelson.* Seventh street passed through the first gate, opposite to the head quarters of the then *General Clark.*

This early and principal military defence, in this part of the valley, deserves a few more particulars. It contained about an acre of ground, and was surrounded by a ditch eight feet deep and ten feet wide, intersected in the middle by a row of sharp pickets; this ditch was surmounted by a breastwork of log pens or inclosures filled with earth obtained from the ditch, together with pickets ten feet high planted on the top of the breast work. Next to the river, pickets alone were deemed sufficient aided by the long slope of the river bank. Some of the remains of these pickets were dug up, in the summer of 1832, in excavating the cellars for Mr. John Love's stores, on Main street, opposite to the *Louisville Hotel.* There was artillery in the fort, particularly a double fortified brass piece which had been captured by Clark at Vincennes. This piece played no inconsiderable part in the military operations of this day of small things, insignificant as they must appear to a regular military critic. The ground of both these forts was personally inspected by the author, in company with the late Capt. Donne, a well known pilot of the Falls, from whom these particulars were learned.

citizens of the Commonwealth of Virginia who are already settled or shall hereafter settle on the *western side of the Ohio*, shall be included in a district county, which shall be called *Illinois county.*"† The same statute authorised the appointment of a County Lieutenant, or commandant in chief, in that county, who was himself empowered to appoint deputy commandants and commissaries as he might think proper. In addition to this Virginia organization of Illinois, "all civil officers to which the inhabitants have been accustomed, necessary for the preservation of the peace, and the administration of justice, shall be chosen by a *majority of the citizens* in their respective districts, to be convened for that purpose by the County Lieutenant or commandant, or his deputy."‡ Col. John Todd, who afterwards lost his life at the disastrous battle of the Blue Licks so much to the regret of the country, received the appointment of Commandant and Lieutenant Colonel of the *County of Illinois:* a mark of no ordinary confidence for an appointment in a distant province of Virginia. A regiment of five hundred men was also authorized to be raised and an opening of communications with the Spanish city of New Orleans was directed, for the support of this detachment.

About the middle of August Capt. Leonard Helm was appointed by Col. Clark, with no little grandiloquence, commandant at St. Vincents, and "*agent for Indian affairs in the department of the Wabash.*" This officer was particularly recommended to Clark by his knowledge of deportment and general prudence of character.* In addition to these civil regulations, Colonel Clark entered into a series of Indian treaties, the first which our countrymen held with the Indians of this portion of the West. These were conducted with an efficiency and dignity, as well as attended with such remarkable circumstances, as to deserve particular detail Clark had always thought that the policy of inviting Indians to treat, was founded in a mistaken estimate of their character; they always looked upon such invitations, he believed, as evidences either of fear or weakness, or both. He, therefore, studiously avoided every invitation of the sort, and waited for the Indians to request a treaty; while he fought them fiercely and en-

† Henning's Statutes at large, and Dillon, 150.

‡ Dillon, 150, 151.

* An ancestor of a distinguished family in Kentucky, one of whom was lately Lieutenant Governor of the State.

ergetically, until they did so. Col. Clark had made himself acquainted with the French and Spanish modes of treating the Indians, and had been long devoted to the study of the Indian character. In consequence of this, he determined to guard against spoiling the Indians, as had been too much the case in negotiating the English treaties; to use the strictest reserve, and to grant presents with a niggardly hand, as wrung from him, rather than as spontaneous and willing gratifications. These are principles of conduct founded on a profound knowledge of our indigenous barbarians; the propriety of which is confirmed by the success of Col. Clark, in the weakness of his military force, over the Indian multitude all around him; and it is well contrasted with any subsequent negotiations with the red men.

The ceremonies of the first and ancient council of our countrymen with these remote sons of the forest are worth recording, as they are found in the memoir of the negotiator himself.

These treaties began about the 1st of September, 1778, in the neighborhood of Cahokia. The parties both white and red had assembled, when the chief who was to open the council, as the Indians were the solicitors, advanced to the *table* at which Col. Clark was sitting, with the belt of peace in his hand, another with the sacred pipe, and a third with fire to kindle it. After the pipe was lighted, it was presented to the heavens, then to the earth, and completing a circle, was presented to all the spirits invoking them to witness what was about to be done.

The pipe was now presented to Col. Clark, and afterwards to every person present.*

After these formalities the speaker addressed himself to the Indians as follows: "Warriors, you ought to be thankful that the Great Spirit has taken pity on you, has cleared the sky and opened your ears and hearts so that you may hear the truth. We have been deceived by bad birds flying through the land, [meaning the British emissaries]; but we will take up the bloody hatchet no more against the *Big Knife*, [meaning our countrymen]; and we hope that as the Great Spirit has brought us together for good, as he is good, so we may be received as friends; and peace may take the place of the bloody belt." The speaker then threw into the middle of the room the bloody belt of wampum, and flags which had been

* Clark's memoir.

received from the British and stamped upon them, in token of their rejection.

To this address, Clark very guardedly and coldly replied: "I have paid attention to what has been said, and will to-morrow give you an answer, when I hope the hearts of all people will be ready to receive the truth. But I recommend them to keep prepared for the result of this council, upon which their very existence as nations depends. I desire them not to let any of our people shake hands with them, as peace was not yet made; and it was time enough to give the hand, when the heart could be given also." An Indian chief rejoined to this address that "such sentiments are like men who had but one heart, and did not speak with a forked tongue."

The council then rose, until the next day, when Clark delivered to the Indians again assembled the following address, which is taken literally from his memoir: "Men and Warriors. Pay attention to my words. You informed me yesterday, that the Great Spirit had brought us together, and that you hoped that as he was good, it would be for good. I have also the same hope, and expect that each party will strictly adhere to whatever may be agreed on, whether it shall be peace or war; and hence forward, prove ourselves worthy of the protection of the Great Spirit. I am a man and a warrior, not a counsellor; I carry war in my right hand, and in my left, peace. I am sent by the Great Council of the Big Knife and their friends, to take possession of all the towns possessed by the English in this country, and to watch the motions of the Red people; to bloody the paths of those who attempt to stop the course of the river; but to clear the roads from us to those that desire to be at peace; that the women and children may walk in them, without meeting anything to strike their feet against. I am ordered to call upon the Great Fire for warriors enough to darken the land, that the Red people may hear no sound but of birds that live on blood."

"I know there is a mist before your eyes; I will dispel the clouds, that you may clearly see the causes of the war between the Big Knife and the English; then you may judge for yourselves, which party is in the right; and if you are warriors, as you profess yourselves to be, prove it by adhering faithfully to the one which you shall believe to be entitled to your friendship; and not show yourselves squaws."

"The Big Knife is very much like the Red people, they don't know how to make blankets and powder and cloth; they buy these things from the English from whom they are sprung. They live by making corn, hunting and trade, as you and your neighbors the French do. But the Big Knife daily getting more numerous, like the trees in the woods, the land became poor and hunting scarce; and having but little to trade with, the women began to cry at seeing their children naked, and they tried to make clothes for themselves. They soon made blankets for their husbands and children, and the men learned to make guns and powder. In this way, we did not want to buy so much from the English; they then got mad with us, and sent strong garrisons through our country, (as you see they have done among you on the lakes, and among the French); they would not let our women spin, nor our men make powder; nor let us trade with any body else. The English said we should buy everything from them, and since we had got saucy, we should give two *bucks* for a blanket, which we used to get for one; we should do as they pleased; and they killed some of our people, to make the rest fear them."

"This is the truth and the real cause of the war between the English and us, which did not take place for some time after this treatment. But our women became cold and hungry, and continued to cry; our young men became lost for want of counsel to put them in the right path. The whole land was dark, the old men held down their heads for shame, because they could not see the sun, and thus there was mourning for many years over the land."

"At last the Great Spirit took pity on us, and kindled a great council fire, that man goes out at a place called Philadelphia; he then stuck down a post, and put a war tomahawk by it, and went away. The sun immediately broke out; the sky was blue again; the old men held up their heads and assembled at the fire; they took up the hatchet, sharpened it and put it into the hands of our young men, ordered them to strike the English as long as they could find one, on this side of the great waters. The young men immediately struck the war post and blood was shed. In this way the war began; and the English were driven from one place to another, until they got weak, and then they hired you Red people to fight for them. The Great Spirit got angry at this, and caused your old Father, the French king, and other great nations to join the Big Knife and fight with them against all their enemies. So

the English have become like a deer in the woods; and you may see it is the Great Spirit that has caused your waters to be troubled, because you have fought for the people he was mad with."

"If your women and children should now cry, you must blame yourselves for it, and not the Big Knife. You can now judge, who is in the right. I have already told you who I am; here is a bloody belt and a white one, take which you please. Behave like men, and don't let your being surrounded by the Big Knife cause you to take up the one belt with your hands, while your hearts take up the other. If you take the bloody path, you shall leave the town in safety, and you may go and join your friends, the English. We will then try, like warriors, who can put the most stumbling blocks in each other's way, and keep each other's clothes longest stained with blood. If on the other hand, you shall take the path of peace, and be received as brothers to the Big Knife with their friends, the French, should you then listen to bad birds that may be flying through the land, you will no longer deserve to be counted as men, but as creatures with two tongues that ought to be destroyed without listening to anything you might say."

"As I am convinced you never heard the truth before, I do not wish you to answer before you have taken counsel. We will therefore part this evening, and when the Great Spirit shall bring us together again, let us speak and think with but one heart and one tongue."

The next day after this speech a new fire was kindled with more than usual ceremony, when the Indian speaker again came forward and said: "They ought to be thankful that the Great Spirit had taken pity on them, and opened their ears and hearts to receive the truth. I have paid great attention to what the Great Spirit had put into my heart to say to us, as the Big Knife did not speak, like any other people we have heard. We now see that we have been deceived, and that the English had told them lies, and that you have told us the truth; just as some of our old men have always told us. We now believe that you are in the right; and as the English had forts in their country, they might, if they got strong enough, want to serve them, as they had treated the Big Knife. The Red people ought therefore to help us; we have taken the belt of peace, and spurned that of war; we are determined to hold the former fast, and have no doubt of your friendship,

from the manner of your speaking, so different from that of the English. We will now call in our warriors, and throw the tomahawk into the river, where it can never be found. We will suffer no more bad birds to fly through the land disquieting the women and children. We will be careful to smooth the roads for our brothers, the Big Knife, whenever they may wish to come and see us."

"Our friends shall hear of the good talk you have given us; and we hope you will send chiefs among us with your own eyes to see yourself that we are men, and strictly adhere to all we have said, at this great fire, which the Great Spirit has kindled at Cahokia, for the good of all people who have attended it."

The pipe was again kindled and presented to all the spirits as witnesses of the transactions. It was smoked; and the council was concluded by shaking hands among all the parties, both white and red. In this manner, with very little variety, treaties were concluded with many tribes with a dignity and sense of importance in their eyes, little inferior to that felt by our own countrymen at the alliance of their government with the powerful kingdom of France.

These negotiations of Clark at Cahokia, in a short time undermined the British influence through a large portion of these regions. The co-operation of the French inhabitants essentially contributed to these important results; the Indians implicitly trusted in the representations of their ancient allies, and became thoroughly alarmed by the French accounts of the power of the Americans. Their actual force on the spot was utterly too insignificant, even added to the boasted reinforcement from Kentucky, to have had any such influence. Let the recollection of this ancient partiality of our French fellow-citizens be an additional bond of attachment between the descendants of fathers who so early had been friends.

Col. Clark adhered resolutely to a determination of not appearing to court the Indians; he even affected to apologize for making them the few presents his scanty stores enabled him to confer. He attributed them to the great way they had traveled; and thus having expended their ammunition and worn out their moccasins and leggins. The native tribes were so much alarmed at the high and disdainful spirit of their new neighbor that the conclusion of peace notwithstanding Clark's reserve, and possibly in consequence of it, gave them satisfaction. This state of mind was confirmed by the report of the spies, whom Clark kept among all his new allies

as well as the more doubtful tribes. So well consolidated was his influence under the co-operation of French cordiality, that a single soldier could be sent in safety among the Indians through any part of the Wabash and Illinois country, to the heads of the waters discharging themselves into the lakes and the Mississippi.

Here the British still maintained their ascendency; no doubt as has always been the case by holding the forts through the country. Indeed, many of the tribes were even now divided between them and the Americans. So sudden and extensive a change among the Indians in our favor is mainly attributed to the friendly disposition of the French agents and traders, supported by the stern and commanding deportment of Col. Clark. It required all his tact, united to the French influence, to preserve the firt impression he had made, while at the head of so inadequate a force.

Accordingly the prospect of reinforcement from the Falls of Ohio was constantly held out, and every means adopted to attach our new fellow-citizens to the American government. No fees were exacted by the commanding officers in the weekly courts, which were occupied by the business and disputes of the people: a contract of administration most favorable to American influence, in the poverty and docility of this primitive people. A friendly correspondence with the Spanish government on the opposite side of the Mississippi, and the permission of some trade with agents, even from Canada, all contributed to maintain a controlling influence over the savages.

ARTICLE IV.

Treaty between the U. S. and Mexico.—The Mesilla Valley.—Pacific Railroad.

So little is known respecting the country recently acquired by the United States under the late treaty with Mexico that we conclude a description of that region, in connection with the treaty, will be interesting to our readers.

It is generally conceded, we believe, that the principal motive to the purchase of the Mesilla Valley was the acquisition of a favorable route for a railroad from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean. We have, therefore, selected from Commissioner Bartlett's personal

narrative such facts as would seem to affect the practicability and profitables of building a railroad through that region.

It will be recollected that the initial point for the commencement of the northern boundary line of Mexico was fixed by commissioners where the parallel of 32° 22′ north latitude intersects the middle of the Rio Grande. Thence the line proceeded west to the waters of the Gila. By the late treaty, this line is to commence on the Rio Grande at a point where the parallel of 31° 47′ intersects the middle of that river, being 35′ or about forty miles further south. This space includes the Mesilla Valley. As the meaning of the name, and the character of this valley is not generally understood, we quote the following, by way of explanation, from Bartlett's personal narrative:

"*Mesilla* is the diminutive of the Spanish word *mesa*, i. e. table, also table-land, or plateau, and is applied to a lesser plateau in the valley of the Rio Grande, beneath that of the great *mesa* or table-land which extends for several hundred miles in all directions from the Rio Grande. It is situated on the western side of the Rio Grande, about fifty miles above El Paso, in latitude about 32° 18′ north, and until the year 1850, it was without an inhabitant."

In March 1851, it contained between six and seven hundred inhabitants, mostly Mexicans who removed from the east side of the Rio Grande by reason of the claims set up to their lands by American citizens holding land grants or certificates known as "Texas head-rights." The author says the lands at La Mesilla are precisely of the same character as other bottom lands, on the opposite bank of the river, near Dona Ana and Cruces.

Referring to the value of the bottom lands on the Rio Grande, for agricultural purposes, Mr. Bartlett says:

"A mistaken idea prevails in regard to the great advantage of artificial irrigation over that of natural rains. It is true that where the cultivator can depend upon an ample supply of water at all seasons in the irrigating canals, he possesses an advantage over him who relies exclusively on nature. But the misfortune is that when water is most needed, the supply is the scantiest. In February and March there is always enough for the first irrigation. In April and May the quantity is much diminished; and if the rise expected to take place in the middle of May, fails, there is not enough to irrigate properly all the fields prepared for it. The consequence is, a partial failure of crop. In 1851 many large tracts of land near El Paso, which were planted in the spring, and through which irrigating canals were dug at a great cost, pro-

duced nothing;" and the author was told by a gentleman at San Eleazario, twenty-five miles below El Paso, "that the summer of 1852 was the first one in five years when there had been sufficient to irrigate all the lands of that vicinity which had been put under cultivation." He concludes that "not one tenth part of the fertile bottom land of the Rio Grande can be cultivated, owing to the uncertainty of the supply of water. The Rio Grande receives no tributary for more than four hundred miles, reckoning above and below El Paso; and if there is now found to be not water enough even for the limited district near that town, what is to be done with the vast tract along the river below at a time of scarcity?"

From these facts it is obvious that even the narrow slip of bottom land on the Rio Grande, constituting the Mesilla valley proper, is of but very little value for agricultural purposes.

Having emerged from the valley of the Rio Grande and reached the summit of a high table-land, the author says:

"On the west, the broad undulating prairie was only here and there interrupted by low conical-shaped hills. At the south and south-west, detached mountains appeared abruptly springing from the plain, with jagged and picturesque summits, some of which must have been fifteen hundred feet in height. In the clear blue atmosphere of this elevated plateau, every object appeared with great distinctness, so that mountains could be seen at a distance of more than a hundred miles."

After crossing this barren plateau, at the distance of about seventy-five miles from the Rio Grande, the party reached the Rio Mimbres; "the third stream," says the author, "we had seen since passing the small water courses which empty into the Colorado, in our journey from San Antonio to El Paso, the Picos and the Rio Grande being the other two. * * * * The bottom for nearly a mile in width was covered with verdure, such as we have not seen since leaving the rich vallies near Fredericksburg, in Texas."

The Rio Mimbres is described as being a stream from "ten to twenty feet in width, and in some places even less: its waters soft and delightful to the taste. * * * It has never been traced to either of its terminations. It rises in the mountains north-east of the copper mines, and when full, empties into lake Guzman, about one hundred and thirty miles to the south; but for several months in the year it exists only in pools, or dries up entirely, after reaching the plains. When the surveying party crossed it six weeks later, about fifteen miles lower down, they found it entirely dry."

The bottom at the place crossed by the party was thickly wooded: ash and oak were interspersed among large cotton-wood; wild

roses, hops and the Missouri currant grew in great profusion, and so much entangled that it was difficult to pass through them. The bottom lands are narrow. But the author thinks if cultivated they would afford provision to supply a respectable number of operatives at the copper mines which are distant about eight miles from the stream. Game, consisting of black-tailed deer, bears, turkeys, quails, &c., are abundant in the valley of the Rio Mimbres, and in the copper mine region. An excellent forest, however, consisting of two species of pine, and two species of evergreen oaks, seems to be the most interesting and valuable feature of this region. This range of forest extends from the Gila eastward about fifty miles; but lies, as we believe, north of the lands lately acquired. We copy the following remarks of the author at the close of the third day after leaving the copper mines:

"The country passed over in the last three days is barren and uninteresting in the extreme. As we toiled across these sterile plains, where no tree offered its friendly shade, the sun glowing fiercely, and the wind hot from the parched earth, cracking the lips and burning the eyes, the thought would keep suggesting itself, is this the land we have purchased, and are to survey and keep at such cost? As far as the eye can reach, stretches one unbroken waste, barren, wild and worthless. For fifty-two long miles we have traversed it without finding a drop of water that our suffering beasts would drink; nor has there been grass enough since we left the copper mine region for more than a small number of animals, such as our own."

"The animals noticed seem to have partaken of the wildness of the country they inhabit. An occasional herd of antelopes is seen galloping in the distance, unapproachable by the hunter, for the want of a tree or shrub behind which he may advance. Lizards of various hues and graceful shapes glide about with inconceivable swiftness. A startled hare throws up its ears, and bounds out of sight. The prairie dog gives a shrill cry of warning to its fellows, and drops into its burrow. The only things that do not seem terror-striken, are the so-called *horned frogs*. They, as if conscious of the security afforded by their own hideous ugliness, sullenly remove themselves out of the way of the horses' hoofs, and regard the passer with malicious eyes. The vegetable presents scarcely more of interest than the animal world. The flowers are almost entirely of that most unbecoming of all hues, yellow—varying from sulphur color to orange—and glaring in the bright sun light. One becomes sickened and disgusted with the ever-recurring sameness of plain and mountain, plant and living thing. But if the day's travel is tedious, it is almost compensated by the glory of the night. In this clear dry atmosphere, without cloud or haze, moonlight

and starlight have a splendor of which dwellers upon the sea-side cannot conceive."

This may be regarded as a general description of that part of the Mesilla purchase, lying between the Rio Grande and the Rio San Pedro, a tributary of the Gila.

The point on the Rio San Pedro first reached by Commissioner Bartlett was on the parallel of latitude 31° 54′ 31″; Longit. west from Greenwich 110° 11′ 41″. He says:

"The stream much resembled the Pecos in appearance, though much smaller, was here about twenty feet across, about two feet deep, and quite rapid. The water, though muddy, was pleasant to the taste. The valley of the San Pedro near our camp was anything but luxuriant. It consists of a loam, which if irrigated might be productive; but as the banks are not less than eight or ten feet high, irrigation is impracticable, except by digging a canal of a very long distance. The grass of the vicinity is miserably thin and poor, growing merely in tufts beneath the mzquit bushes, which constitute the only shrubbery, and in some instances attain a height of ten or twelve feet; low hills approach within a mile of the river, on the east side, and on the west within a quarter of a mile."

About three miles further south, however, the party succeded in finding grass sufficient for their animals.

From this camp, Mr. Bartlett set out in search of Santa Cruz, a town about forty miles distant, in a southern direction, for the purpose of procuring provisions. Having no guide, the party wandered among the mountains and defiles about two weeks before it reached the town. Our author says:

"*Santa Cruz* is one of the nine *presideos*, or military posts, on the frontier of the State of Sonora. It was formerly a place of considerable importance, with about fifteen hundred inhabitants; but at present its population does not exceed three hundred. It possesses a fine valley and bottom land of the richest soil, and is irrigated by a small stream bearing its own name, which has its rise in springs about ten miles to the north. It is admirably adapted for the raising of cattle and horses, as well as of all kinds of grain."

We regret that Mr. Bartlett has not given the latitude of Santa Cruz. From its location on the map and its supposed distance from the camp on the Rio San Pedro, we conclude that it is within the limit of the late purchase, though it must be very near the line. The valley of Santa Cruz river whose source is but a short distance north of the town is perhaps worth all the rest of the Mesilla purchase for agricultural purposes.

The author's lively description of the Santa Cruz valley is quite refreshing to one after following him for many hundred miles through sterile plains and rugged mountains. Of this valley he says:

"A few miles brought us to the *Puerta*, or gate in the mountain; pursuing which, we emerged into a very broad and open plain of remarkable beauty. From the elevation where we first saw the valley, the prospect was exceedingly picturesque. Around us grew the maguay, the yucca, and various kinds of cacti, together with small oaks; while beneath us, the valley spread out from six to eight miles in width, and some twelve or fifteen in length. Unlike the desolate and barren plains between the mountain ridges, which we have crossed between the Rio Grande and the San Pedro, this valley was covered with the most luxuriant herbage, and thickly studded with live oaks; not like a forest, but rather resembling a cultivated park."

In his rambles between the camp on the Rio San Pedro and Santa Cruz, Mr. Bartlett passed through a beautiful valley watered by a small stream, but we are not informed whether this stream is a tributary of the San Pedro or of the Santa Cruz. He says:

"The valley for the last ten miles of our march resembled an old and highly cultivated place, from which the people and their habitations had suddenly disappeared. Large cotton-wood trees and willow bushes lined the stream, while here and there in little groves were beautiful oaks and large mezquit trees; for the latter, although adapted to every soil, becomes a large tree in rich soil like this. It seemed that each grove, as we approached it, must conceal some dwelling place and cultivated grounds; but in reality all was solitude, and there was no evidence that a furrow had ever turned the virgin soil, or a seed had ever been sown there."

He says nothing of the width of this valley, but we infer that it is quite narrow.

Notwithstanding the valley of the San Pedro is represented as being sterile at the place where Mr. Bartlett crossed it, yet it is probable that it may be more fertile in other parts. The valley of the *Babocomori*, one of its tributaries, crossed by Mr. Bartlett, is described as being from a quarter to a half a mile in breadth, and covered with a luxuriant growth of grass. The stream is about twenty feet wide with willows and large cotton-wood trees growing on its margin.

In a summary view of the route the author states:

"From San Antonio to Fredericksburg [69–67 miles] the road is very stony a portion of the way, the remainder good. The soil is excellent. Wood, water and grass are always found at conven-

ient distances, and in abundance. The soil continues of a good quality until the San Saba is reached; [137 miles from San Antonio] from that river to the north fork of Brady's Creek it is not so good. The grass is generally light to the latter place, with less wood and water, though enough for parties travelling. We now begin to get on the great table-land of Texas, where there is little rain and a poor soil. Several small streams emptying into the Colorado or the Concho here intersect the road, on the immediate banks of which there are a few trees. But the intermediate country is destitute of timber, save a very few small oak or mezquit. The grass too is poor, except near the water courses. On leaving the head waters of the Conchos, nature assumes a new aspect. Here trees and shrubs disappear, except the thorny chapporal of the deserts; the water courses all cease, nor does any stream intervene until the Rio Grande is reached, three hundred and fifty miles distant, except the muddy Pecos, which, rising in the Rocky Mountains near Santa Fe, crosses the great desert plain west of of Llano Estacado, or staked plains. From the Rio Grande to the waters of the Pacific, pursuing a western course along the 32d parallel, near El Paso Del Norte, there is no stream of a higher grade than a small creek. I know of none but the San Pedro and the Santa Cruz, the latter but a rivulet losing itself in the sands near the Gila, and the other but a diminutive stream scarcely reaching that river. At the head waters of the Concho, therefore, begins that great desert region, which, with no interruption save a limited valley or bottom land along the Rio Grande, and lesser ones near the small courses mentioned, extends over a district embracing sixteen degrees of longitude, or about a thousand miles, and is wholly unfit for agriculture. It is a desolate barren waste, which can never be rendered useful for man or beast, save for a public highway. It is destitute of forests, except in the defiles and gorges of the higher mountains or on their summits. Along the valley of the Rio Grande, which is from one and a half to two miles in width, there grow large cotton-wood trees and a few mezquit; but between this river and the north fork of Brady's Creek there is no timbered land."

Now, admitting that the region of country described by Mr. Bartlett affords a route as level as could be desired for the construction of a railroad, still, in an economical point of view, intelligent, practical men must doubt the practicability of making a railroad across a "desert region" a thousand miles wide; which with such slight interruptions "is wholly unfit for agriculture." Other conditions and appliances besides a level surface are necessary to make a railroad upon terms that will render it profitab le to the builders.

There is no point between the Gulf of Mexico and the mouth of

the Gila from which the line could be supplied with iron. And, after a careful examination of Mr. Bartlett's description of the country, we conclude that there is not sufficient timber within one hundred miles of a line of road located between the parallels of 31° and 32° north latitude to construct it; this would be the case for at least one thousand miles of the route. And it may be confidently affirmed that a supply of bread and grain sufficient to feed the number of hands and teams which must be employed on the work, if prosecuted with reasonable speed, could not be obtained within two hundred miles of the line, after leaving the sources of the Colorado of Texas. Nor is it practicable, according to the facts stated by Mr. Bartlett, to increase, to any considerable degree, the productions of that region. He has shown that as much land is already in cultivation in the valley of the Rio del Norte as can be supplied with water. There are three towns in the valley of the Santa Cruz containing in all about seven hundred inhabitants, which comprise the population of the valley; and the following extracts will show how little prospect there is of increasing the agricultural products or population in that region. The author states:

"As an example of the uncertainty of crops from artificial irrigation in this country, I will mention a circumstance which occurred at Tubac. The preceding fall after the place had been again occupied, a party of Mormons in passing through on their way to California was induced to stop there by the representations of the commandante. He offered them lands in the rich valley, where acequias were already dug, if they would remain and cultivate it; assuring them that they would find a ready market for all the corn, wheat and vegetables they could raise, from troops and from passing emigrants. The offer was so good, and the prospect so flattering, that they consented to remain. They therefore set to work, and ploughed and sowed their lands, in which they expended all their means, anticipating an abundant harvest. But the spring and summer came without rain: the river dried up; their fields could not be irrigated, and their labor, time and money were lost. They abandoned the place," and proceeded to California.

The author relates another instance in the ruins of a large rancho known as *Calabasa*.

"This Calabasa, I was told by Leroux, was a thriving establishment when he visited it twenty years ago. A large tract of land was then under cultivation, and herds of cattle were reared on the adjacent hills. But the stream did not furnish a sufficient quantity of water to irrigate it, without cutting off entirely the towns

of Tubac and Tucson, and consequently it was abandoned. This is the difficulty with these small water-courses ; for having few or no tributaries to keep up the supply, as our northern streams have, and frequently running a course of several hundred miles before they terminate, their water cannot be drawn off without destroying the crops below them, even depriving the people and animals of water to drink."

With so few natural resources and such little prospect of enlarging them, an element enters into the cost of building a railroad through this region, which will astonish the friends of this route, when the estimates are made upon a practical basis. Where is the engineer that will risk his reputation by estimating the cost of labor, provisions, timber and iron on such a route at an amount which would authorize the most reckless speculator to undertake the enterprise ?

If this region be correctly described by Commissioner Bartlett, we do not hesitate to affirm, in an economical point of view, that the construction of a railroad through it is totally impracticable, and that the work will never be accomplished. But were a road built through this desert region, it would be of little value, except as a means of transit from ocean to ocean, and hence one of the chief objects of building railroads; the development of the resources of the country through which they pass would not be obtained in this case.

The foregoing extracts from Commissioner Bartlett's narrative will give our readers a tolerable good idea of the value of the country acquired by the late treaty. The area is estimated at about 20,000,000 acres — about one half the size of the State of Missouri. If we are right in supposing that it includes the town of Santa Cruz, it contains besides that, the town of Messilla on the Rio Grande, and the towns of Tubac and Tucson in the Santa Cruz valley; containing in all a population, according to Mr. Bartlett's accounts, of about 2,600 inhabitants. According to observations taken by Dr. Wislizenus, El Paso is on the parallel of 30° 45′ 50, and consequently is not included in the Mesilla purchase.

TREATY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO.

Message from the President of the United States, transmitting a copy of the Treaty between the U. S. of America and the Republic of Mexico.

To the House of Representatives :

I have received information that the Government of Mexico has agreed to the several amendments proposed by the Senate to the treaty

between the United States and the Republic of Mexico, signed on the 30th of December last, and has authorized its Envoy Extraordinary to this Government to exchange the ratifications thereof. The time within which the ratifications can be exchanged will expire on the 30. instant.

There is a provision in the treaty for the payment by the United States to Mexico of the sum of seven millions of dollars on the exchange of ratifications, and the further sum of three millions of dollars when the boundaries of the ceded territory shall be settled.

To be enabled to comply with the stipulation, according to the terms of the treaty, relative to the payment therein mentioned, it will be necessary that Congress should make an oppropriation of seven millions of dollars for that purpose before the 30th instant, and also the further sum of three millions of dollars, to be paid when the boundaries shall be established. I, therefore, respectfully request that these sums may be put at the disposal of the Executive.

I herewith transmit to the House of Representatives a copy of the said treaty.

FRANKLIN PIERCE.

WASHINGTON, June 20, 1854.

Treaty between the United States of America and the Mexican Republic, concluded at the City of Mexico, December 30, 1853.

In the name of Almighty God!

The Republic of Mexico and the United States of America, desiring to remove every cause of disagreement which might interfere in any manner with the better friendship and intercourse between the two countries, and especially in respect to the true limits which should be established, when, notwithstanding what was covenanted in the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, in the year 1848, opposite interpretations have been urged, which might give occasion to questions of serious moment.

To avoid these, and to strengthen and more firmly maintain the peace which happily prevails between the two republics, the President of the United States has, for this purpose, appointed James Gadsden, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the same near the Mexican Government, and the President of Mexico has appointed as plenipotentiary "ad hoc" his Excellency Don Manuel Diez De Bonilla, Cavalier Grand Cross of the National and Distinguished Order of Guadalupe, and Secretary of State and of the office of Foreign Relations, and Don Jose Salazar Yillarregui, and General Mariano Monterde, as scientific commissioners, invested with full powers for this negotiation, who, having communicated their respective full powers, and finding them in due and proper form, have agreed upon the articles following:

ARTICLE I.—The Mexican Republic agrees to designate the following as her true limits with the United States for the future; retaining the same dividing line between the two Californias as already defined and established according to the fifth article of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, the limits between the two republics shall be as follows: Beginning in the Gulf of Mexico, three leagues from land, opposite the mouth of the Rio Grande, as provided in the fifth article of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo; thence, as defined in the said ar-

ticle, up the middle of that river to the point where the parallel of 31 deg. 47 min. north latitude crosses the same; thence due west one hundred miles; thence south to the parallel of 31 deg. 20 min. north latitude; thence along the said parallel of 31 deg. 20 min. to the 111th meridian of longitude west of Greenwich; thence in a straight line to a point on the Colorado river, twenty English miles below the junction of the Gila and Colorado rivers; thence up the middle of the said river Colorado, until it intersects the present line between the United States and Mexico.

For the performance of this portion of the treaty, each of the two governments shall nominate one commissioner, to the end that, by common consent, the two thus nominated, having met in the city of Paso del Norte three months after the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, may proceed to survey and mark out upon the land the dividing line stipulated by this article, where it shall not have already been surveyed and established by the mixed commission, according to the treaty of Guadalupe, keeping a journal and making proper plans of their operations. For this purpose, if they should judge it necessary, the contracting parties shall be at liberty each to unite to its respective commissioner scientific or other assistants, such as astronomers and surveyors, whose concurrence shall not be considered necessary for the settlement and ratification of a true line of division between the two Republics. That line shall be alone established upon which the commissioners may fix, their consent in this particular being considered decisive, and an integral part of this treaty, without necessity of ulterior ratification or approval, and without room for interpretations of any kind by either of the parties contracting. The dividing line thus established shall in all time be faithfully respected by the two governments, without any variation therein, unless of the express and free consent of the two, given in conformity to the principles of the law of nations and in accordance with the constitution of each country respectively.

In consequence of the stipulation in the fifth article of the treaty of Guadalupe, the boundary line therein described, is no longer of any force wherein it may conflict with that here established, the said line being considered annulled and abolished wherever it may not coincide with the present, and in the same manner remaining in full force where in accordance with the same.

Article II.—The Government of Mexico hereby releases the U. S. from all liability on account of the obligations contained in the 11th article of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo,* and the said article and the thirty-third article of the treaty of amity, commerce and navigation between the United States of America and the United Mexican States, concluded at Mexico on the 5th day of April, 1831, are hereby abrogated.

Article III.—In consideration of the foregoing stipulations, the Government of the United States agrees to pay to the Government of Mexico, in the city of New York, the sum of ten millions of dollars, of which seven millions shall be paid immediately upon the exchange

* The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo will be found in the first vol. of the Western Journal, page 456 to page 462, and at page 507.

of the ratifications of this treaty, and the remaining three millions as soon as the boundary lines shall be surveyed, marked and established.

Article IV.—The provisions of the sixth and seventh articles of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo having been rendered nugatory for the most part by the cession of territory granted in the first article of this treaty, the said articles are hereby abrogated and annulled, and the provisions as herein expressed substituted therefor. The vessels and citizens of the United States shall, in all time, have free and uninterrupted passage through the Gulf of California, to and from their possessions situated north of the boundary line of the two countries; it being understood that this passage is to be by navigating the Gulf of California and the river Colorado, and not by land without the express consent of the Mexican Government, and precisely the same provisions, stipulations and restrictions, in all respects, are hereby agreed upon and adopted, and shall be scrupulously observed and enforced by the two contracting governments, in reference to the Rio Colorado, so far and for such distance as the middle of that river is made their common boundary line by the first article of this treaty.

The several provisions, stipulations and restrictions contained in the seventh article of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, shall remain in force only so far as regards the Rio Bravo del Norte, below the initial of the said boundary provided in the first article of this treaty — that is to say, below the intersection of the 31st deg. 47 min. 30 sec. parallel of latitude with the boundary line established by the late treaty, dividing said river from its mouth upwards, according to the fifth article of the treaty of Guadalupe.

Article V.—All the provisions of the eighth and ninth, sixteenth and seventeenth articles of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo shall apply to the territory ceded by the Mexican Republic by the first article of the present treaty, and to all the rights of persons and property, both civil and ecclesiastical, within the same, as fully and as effectually as if the said articles were herein again recited and set forth.

Article VI.—No grants of land within the territory ceded by the first article of this treaty, bearing date subsequent to the twenty-fifth day of September, when the Minister and subscriber to this treaty on the part of the United States proposed to the government of Mexico to terminate the question of boundary, will be considered valid, or be recognized by the United States, or will any grants made previously be respected, or be considered as obligatory, which have not been located and duly recorded in the archives of Mexico.

Article VII.—Should there at any future period (which God forbid) occur any disagreements between the two nations which might lead to a rupture of their relations and reciprocal peace, they bind themselves in like manner to procure, by every possible method, the adjustment of every difference; and should they still in this manner not succeed, never will they proceed to a declaration of war without having previously paid attention to what has been set forth in article twenty-one of the treaty of Guadalupe for similar cases, which articles, as well as the twenty-second is here re-affirmed.

Article VIII.—The Mexican Government having on the 5th day

of February, 1853, authorized the early construction of a plank and railroad across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and to secure the stable benefits of such transit way to the persons and merchandise of the citizens of Mexico and the United States, it is stipulated that neither Government will interpose any obstacle to the transit of persons and merchandise of both nations; and at no time shall higher charges be made on the transit of persons and property of citizens of the United States, than may be made on the persons and property of other foreign nations; nor shall any interest in said transit way, nor in the proceeds thereof, be transferred to any foreign government.

The United States, by its agents, shall have the right to transport across the Isthmus, in closed bags, the mails of the United States not intended for distribution along the line of communication; also, the effects of the United States Government and its citizens, which may be intended for transit, and not for distribution on the Isthmus free of custom-house or other charges by the Mexican Government. Neither passports nor letters of security will be required of persons crossing the Isthmus and not remaining in the country.

When the construction of the railroad shall be completed the Mexican Government agrees to open a port of entry in addition to the port of Vera Cruz, at or near the terminus of said road on the Gulf of Mexico.

The two governments will enter into arrangements for the prompt transit of troops and munitions of the United States, which that government may have occasion to send from one part of its territory to another lying on opposite sides of the continent.

The Mexican Government having agreed to protect with its whole power the prosecution, preservation and security of the work, the United States may extend its protection, as it shall judge wise, when it may feel sanctioned and warranted by the public or international law.

Article IX.—This treaty shall be ratified, and the respective ratifications shall be exchanged at the city of Washington, within the exact period of six months from the date of its signatures, or sooner if possible.

In testimony whereof, we, the plenipotentiaries of the contracting parties, have hereunto affixed our hands and seals at Mexico, the thirtieth (30th) day of December, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty three, in the thirty-third year of the independence of the Mexican republic, and the seventy-eighth of that of the United States.

JAMES GADSDEN, [L. S.]
MANUEL DIEZ DE BONILLA, [L. S.]
JOSE SALAZAR YLAREGRUI, [L. S.]
J. MARIANO MONTERDE, [L. S.]

ARTICLE V.

Agricultural Capacity of California.

TRASK'S GEOLOGICAL REPORT.

We are indebted to the politeness of John T. Trask, M. D., State Geologist of California, for a copy of his "Report on the Geology of the Coast Mountains, and part of the Sierra Nevada, embracing their industrial resources in Agriculture and Mining."

"This Report embraces the examination of a district of country included within 120° 16′ and 122° 32′ west longitude, and from the thirty-fifth parallel to the thirty-ninth degree of north latitude, inclusive of the Coast Mountains and mineral districts." Many objects which we think should be embraced in a thorough geological survey, have been omitted in this; it is nevertheless among the most interesting works of the kind which has come under our notice.

It was not to be expected that a thorough examination and survey embracing all proper objects and details could have been undertaken at this early stage in the history of California, but in our opinion, the State has been quite fortunate in the selection of an individual to make the first official exploration.

The author is a discriminating observer selecting his objects with an eye to their more immediate importance in a practical point of view; and confining his report chiefly to the statement of facts, leaves the reader to indulge in philosophic speculations, and form his own theories.

Hitherto the gold of California has constituted its greatest attraction. But we are persuaded that the time is not far distant when agriculture will become its chief source of wealth and prosperity.

The lively interest we feel in this branch of industry in California, has induced us to omit, for the present, any notice of its mineral resources, and to fill this paper with observations touching the capacity of its soil and climate to produce the necessaries and luxuries of a civilized people.

In an agricultural point of view, the valleys of Sacramento and San Joaquin constitute the leading feature of the State. But owing to the difficulty and perhaps impracticability of irrigating them from streams flowing on the surface, they have been regarded as of little value for agricultural purposes. The author concludes that these valleys may be irrigated by the use of artesian wells. Should his opinion and calculations in respect to the depth of boring be verified, these valleys are destined to become as famous for their productiveness as the valley of the Nile.

To show the grounds of his opinion upon this subject, we extract the following geographical description of these valleys.

STRUCTURE OF THE VALLEYS OF SACRAMENTO AND SAN JOAQUIN.

These valleys form a "single geographical formation,"* stretching from the terminal spurs of the Cascade Mountains at the north, to the junction of the Sierra Nevada with the southern terminus of the Monte Diablo range with the thirty-fourth parallel of north latitude. . . The length of the valley is about three hundred and eighty miles in length on an air line, with a breadth of fifty miles at its widest point.

The general appearance of the valley is that of an extended plain composed of alluvium, and this opinion would obtain in the mind of any person whose line of travel should lead him over the lower terraces of the plain, or what is denominated its bottom lands. It is only by making a transverse section of this plain that we should be able to arrive at any correct conclusions of its structure, and peculiarities of its formation; by pursuing this course, very distinctive and marked features are observable of different periods of elevation to which this portion of the country has been subjected subsequent to its emergence above the level of the sea.

To arrive at a correct understanding of the formation of the "California Basin,"† we must first observe the rocks which form its borders, their character, position and relative age; and in doing this it will be necessary to pass beyond either of its margins to ascertain the facts on which an opinion may be founded.

On the east side of the basin and at the distance of fourteen miles from its border, we find the first out-crop of the primitive rocks, (granite) on hills attaining an alevation of about one thousand feet above the sea Resting upon this, we find detached masses of sandstone, which increase to a well defined formation a few miles of the west; immediately below the latter, a bed of slate makes its appearance, having a dip varying from thirty degrees to nearly a vertical position, but as the lower hills are approached, the inclination of these rocks become much less. Below the slate, a conglomerate having an argelaceous cement is found, firm in its texture, with a dip corresponding to the other rocks with which it is associated; the pebbles composing the conglomerate are quartz, jasper, granite and trap; at times this rock is highly ferruginous. The components of the rock are made up from rocks found in the mountains to the east, and must have been formed subsequent to the appearance of the older trapean formations of this part of the country.

Succeeding the conglomerate,‡ which by way of distinction, we will denominate *Eocene*, another bed of fissile clay slate and aluminous clay occurs, having a thickness of about one hundred feet; these rocks comport in position with the other sedimentary rocks above them, and are found resting directly on the granite, and other igneous rocks far into the interior; in the lower hills their structure is fissile, cleaving

* Col. J. C. Fremont.

† Being similar to the London and Paris Basins, this name will be adopted.

‡ This suite of rocks are often confounded with another group, of the same character which appear of more recent date, and are found south of Consumnes river only.

with ease over considerable surfaces, while in the eastern parts of th mountains they have often acquired a crystaline structure from con tact with other and more recent volcanic rocks, and such as have broken through and disturbed the primitive formation.

On the western side of the valley or basin, the series do not follow in precisely the same order as occurs on the east; the sandstone and slate of the same age is found, but the conglomerate is wanting; if i exists, it is completely obscured from view, except on the west slope of the coast mountains towards the sea and its occurrence there is a reason for the supposition that it does exist below the other stratified rocks on their eastern slope. Above all the others, the miocene rocks are found disturbed a d cut through by the recent volcanic intrusions of that period.

The following then will be the arrangement of the rocks from below upward:

East of the Sacramento river.		West of the Sacramento river.	
Primary Rocks.	*Granite.*	*Primary Rocks.*	*Granite.*
	Slates.		Slates.
	Conglomerate.	Uncertain.	Conglomerate.
Sedimentary.	Slates.	*Sedimentary.*	Sandstone, Eocene.
	Sandstone.		*Sandstone Miocene.*
		Recent volcanic cutting the latter.	

With this arrangement of the stratified rocks which pass under the California Basin, it is obvious, that the waters flowing at the line of junction between the sandstone and the slate-rocks below them, must pass under the sides and central parts of the valley, varying in depth as the distance from either of its borders increases.

It must be remembered that the dip of the sedimentary rocks on which the alluvium of the valley reposes, will increase or diminish the distance that may be necessary to bore for obtaining water, as the inclination of these rocks is greater or less; and with the view to demonstrate if possible, (or at least approximately) the depth that it might be necessary to sink in order to obtain a plentiful supply of water for agriculture or other purposes, an examination of both borders of the basin was made of fifty miles in length, and the mean of all the dips taken.

It was found by measurement that the surface of the basin rises at the average rate of six feet per mile from the river to either of its borders. Taking the grade of the surface with the lowest average dip of the rocks where they pass under it, (being equal to twelve degrees,) and assuming that the sedimentary rocks decrease in inclination, as the distance increases, which is probably the case, it will be found necessary to reach the depth of 775 feet at the City of Sacramento, in order to obtain a permanent supply of water.

This presumption is based upon the fact that a constant source does not exist above the conglomerate, and this point is selected more for the purpose of exhibiting the greatest probable depth at which a permanent supply of water would be found; the probabilities of obtaining water at much less depths is strong, and amounts to almost a certainty, that water would be found immediately below the sandstone, and above the first slates; in that case the depth would be diminished about two hundred and fifty feet.

If a correct idea of the inclination of the sedimentary rocks is presented in the diagram, we shall have the following depths at different distances from the centre of the basin, on both sides.

On the west side of the river.		On the east side of the river.	
11 miles, ...	700 feet.	Sacramento City, . .	775 feet.
15 "	650 "	12 miles, ...	700 "
22 "	550 "	17 "	650 "
		20 "	625 "

At the distance of twenty miles the rolling hills are entered in which springs usually abound.

The rocks on both sides of the valley are arranged in the order in which they occur, as observed by the outcrop.

Sandstone.		Sandstones and upper Slates.
EOCENE,		
Slates,		Conglomerate, EOCENE.
Fosil Sandstone,		Lower clay Slates.
Trap,		
Granite,		Granite.

These rocks included within the Eocene lines are classed by Mr. Dana, as the early sandstone, slates, and conglomerates, to distinguish them from the more recent tertiaries among the Coast Mountains.

The geological structure of this basin was noticed by Mr. Tyson in 1849. He examined it with a view to ascertain whether a deposit of coal might not exist below the surface; and also whether its structure would indicate the means of supplying water for agricultural and mechanical purposes.

In regard to the first question he says: "The first query is answered by the fact of finding the comparatively recent strata of a formation, not older than the eocene and miocene periods, resting immediately on the metamorphic or hypogene rocks of ancient origin, the remaining members with all the sedimentary rocks of older date being entirely wanting, and the coal formation, which belongs to the lower of the secondary series." A coal formation under the basin is therefore out of the question, unless deeply seated, and entirely covered, edges and all, by the sedimentary rocks above noticed.

The character of the soil in many parts of this valley will render it of little importance as an agricultural district, unless water in ample quantities for irrigation can be obtained. (These remarks apply particularly to the upper terrace of the valley on each side of the river.) And we hope that attention may be called to this very important subject of making the extensive areas of the arid districts of the basin available for market and agricultural purposes."

Experience has demonstrated the almost certainty of obtaining water and in sufficient quantities for agricultural and other purposes, in all valleys resting upon sedimentary formations and having a basin-shaped structure, and where the different beds have a degree of uniformity or regularity in their position, and are of a texture that will admit the free percolation of water through the superior beds and sufficiently firm to prevent its escape in those below.

These conditions are all fulfilled in the basin of the Sacramento, and from the united testimony of different observers, we have ample evi-

dence that the sedimentary formations of one side are the same as those upon the other, with the exception, perhaps, of the conglomerate.

The absence of the conglomerate on the west side of the basin; will not affect the result of obtaining water by the means proposed. The clays and clay-slate, below the sandstone, appear on both sides, and are sufficiently impervious and firm to prevent the escape of any water that may rest upon them.*

The SALINAS VALLEY "is about ninety miles in length, and has a varying breadth from eight to fourteen miles; it is situated between the Coast Mountains and those denominated the Monte Diablo Range, and is bounded on the east by that spur of this range in which the Gabilan it situated.

The Salinas River flows through this plain from the Cadesal Pass in which it has its rise, to the bay of Monterey." This valley is described as consisting of three well defined terraces running through nearly its entire length. Commencing on the west side of the river, the lower terrace is about four miles wide, and is composed of a rich alluvium. The second terrace rises abruptly to the height of eleven feet above the first, and consists of a similar soil, though not in so fine a state of disintegration. Both terraces support a dense growth of indigenous grasses and plants, furnishing an abundant supply of pasturage for stock.

With a sufficient supply of water for irrigation this valley will produce an immense quantity of grain, while the third terrace and even the *Mesa* or table lands of Salinas produces excellent pasturage: the wild oat growing in great abundance.

A large portion of the valley, within eight or ten miles of the coast, and on its south-east border and center, is made up of low wet lands, covered with willows and tule, these terminate in lagoons and sloughs as they approach the coast, and contain sufficient depth of water to float a medium sized vessel to the bay of Monterey. The only obstacle that renders these waters innavigable for some distance into the interior of the valley, are the bars of drift and sand which are thrown up by the surf on the coast: a good and substantial breakwater, constructed at some one of these points, would render navigation safe.—The extent of land in the interior that would be affected by a measure of this kind would be great; it being not less than one hundred and

* Since October last, there have been three Artesian borings, carried to depths within one hundred feet, on the valley of Santa Clara, and in the vicinity of San Jose. The result of each has been successful, and a head of water from four to nine feet has been obtained. These indications of water so near the surface and in such quantities, will much enhance the value of agricultural land throughotu this valley and render available much that would otherwise have laid unoccupied and unimproved for years.

fifty miles in length, and possessing capacities for agricultural production equal to any in the State.

This will appear the more evident and necessary, when we find that the lower bottoms above the Salinas valley are capable of producing a wheat crop (at thirty-two bushels per acre,) sufficient to meet the demands of a population numbering three times that of the present State—say nine hundred thousand."

There are other fertile valleys of considerable extent described by the author, but lest we should extend this article to too great a length, we will conclude with a description of the

SOILS OF THE VALLEY SANTA CLARA AND SHORES OF THE BAY SAN FRANCISCO.

The soils on the Bay San Francisco differ much on its eastern and western sides; both borders of the Bay present the tertiary series, but both do not present the trapean rocks to the same degree of development; this, then, of course, will cause a distinctive and marked difference in the productive capabilities of either shore. It will be found, that in all the soils which have been derived, in whole, or in part, from rocks more recent than the tertiary group, that a more extensive and varied adaptation to agricultural purposes will be present; this will be particularly manifest in those sections where the tertiaries, containing organic remains, enter somewhat largely into the components of the soil produced from such sources.

We often meet an extensive and even tract of country lying at the base of a range of hills of the character named above, which are found not to possess so high a degree of fertility as an adjoining section, yet both have derived their soil from the same sources; it becomes not only interesting but important to ascertain the cause of such a discrepancy, and an attentive examination will often point out a natural obstruction of a mechanical nature which has thus been the cause of the impoverishment which may be present. In this case a barrier will often be found among the foothills which has prevented the uniform distribution of the disintegrated rocks above, rendering the plain within its line less productive, rather than the introduction of any new agent, except, perhaps, that derived from the rocks forming that barrier, the amount of which would be inconsiderable, compared to the mass of alluvium beyond.

In illustration of this a single case only will be mentioned. On the Valley Santa Clara, a few miles east of San Jose, the mountains are capped with fossiliferous sandstone for miles in extent, north and south. On examining the slopes of these hills and the broad ravines among them, a rich and deep soil was found to cover the whole, and the vegetation growing upon them bore a just relation to the character of the ground on which they flourished. Passing to the westward toward the valley it was found that the same character of soil continued to the first hills rising from the plain, these bearing an attitude of one hundred feet above its level. On reaching the summit of these hills, the rich, mellow soil to the east instantly gave out, and in its place a heavy, clayey covering was found upon the surface for a considerable distance into the valley; this transition occurred within so

short a distance that I was led to examine more particularly the cause producing it, and accordingly followed the line of these hills until an outcrop of these rocks were found; they consisted of aluminous and chloritic slates, having a high inclination and dipping to the west; from their position they presented a perfect barrier to the passage of the richer soil of the hills passing on to the valley in any other junction than north and south. As far as this line of slates extended, the valley beyond partook, in a greater or less degree, of the character that would be produced by their disinteration, and ill adapted generally to purposes of agriculture unless by artificial application of reclaiming agents and tillage. As soon as the slates began to disappear in the foothills, the character of the soil on the plain beyond assumed a different appearance, and a marked and corresponding change in its vegetable productions.

A mechanical impediment simply is the cause of unproductiveness in such cases, and in instances of this kind, the remedy usually abounds in abundant quantities and at short distances from the points where it may be required.

On the south-east shores of the Bay San Francisco, there are large areas of land that at the present time are considered useless for agricultural purposes, from their low position and semi-argilaceous character; they have often been denominated "mud flats," and heretofore have been considered unadapted even to grazing for sheep. These flats generally extend (toward the bay,) one or two miles from what are considered available and good agricultural lands. Their general appearance to the passer-by is such as would not be likely to impress a person very strongly in their favor, as lands retaining much fertility, but from their superficial appearance would be regarded as a poor representation only of a salt meadow, productive of little else than the common samphire. But such is not the fact, and if experience and experiment have any value or weight, they will be thrown in the balance to the favor of those lands; experiments have been made during the past season on these sections, which cannot fail to convince us of the fact, that the opinions heretofore entertained respecting the available character of a large portion of these districts, are entirely erroneous. A single experiment illustrating their capacity for production if properly tilled, will be given.

Near Uniontown, in the County of Alameda, several acres of land, producing the *samphire* on their flats, was broken up and planted to corn; in one case it was sowed in drills; the corn continued to flourish until September which was the last time I saw it; and at this time the stalk of that in drills had acquired an average height of about nine feet. On the south side of the arroya Alameda another field was planted in hills, which was equal, if not superior in heigth. The soil when broken up, is rich and highly productive in other grains, notwithstanding the meagre appearance it presents prior to tillage, and will in a few years be as successfully and largely cultivated as any other of the valley sections. The *saline lands* of the interior sections are also of the same character, to a certain extent, and if properly tilled are equally productive. Near the rancho San Felipe, Santa Clara County, a similar circumstance was met with; the corn grown upon these lands was being harvested in September and produced a full and well

formed ear, proving not only adaptation of soil, but climate—for the production of this staple in California. The latter case, the lands were 225 feet above the sea, and the field on every side except the south-east was covered with a thick growth of the salt grasses and other kindred plants (samphire) and when free from water the lands were covered with a saline incrustation.

Under a proper course of treatment these lands will be made available for the purposes of the agriculturist, and our already large domain of arable lands thus much increased. The situation of these lands in the interior is such, that they may be easily reclaimed should they ever fall within the jurisdiction of the State, which undoubtedly they will under the law regulating "saline lands." In the counties of San Francisco, Santa Clara and Alameda the wet land that may be made available by drainage is about seventy square miles, exclusive of the "saline lands" at the southern part of the County of Santa Clara.

Most of the valley sections of this range of country is arable land, and that which is not can easily made so when required; the agents for bringing this about being found in the adjoining hills to the east. The character of the soil and climate adapts it to all the productions of temperate climates, and where local position modifies the climate of any section, it is found capable of producing plants of the tropical latitudes.

The extreme south-eastern part of this valley would be adapted to the growth of foreign fruits and other products, but it must be beyond the influence of the cold sea-wind that passes inland across the range of lower hills which divide the Salinas, Pajaro, and Santa Clara Valleys, the effect of which would be to blight the fruit, though the plant or tree might continue to thrive.

The low hills that flank the east side of the valley contain all lhe elements required for the culture of tropical plants and fruits; the climate and soil will be found adapted, and the only agent that appears in the least to be wanting is water sufficient to supply the demands of those plants. From the appearance of small lagoons and rivulets at different elevations it is presumable that a sufficient quantity of this agent may be found a short distance below the surface.

As a general rule the mountains lying upon the east border of the valley Santa Clara are covered with a soil superior to that of the plains, and of much greater depth. I have measured the depths of these soils in many places, and where it is well developed have found it varying from four to eleven feet for miles continuous; its extreme fertility produces heavy crops of the native grains and grasses which annually contribute to its increase by their decomposition.

Although these lands are situated within the reach of the sea-breeze from the Bay of San Francisco, they are protected from its cold by the slope of the hills and the modifications of its temperature acquired in its passage down the bay before reaching the northern portion of the valley. So much is the temperature increased that an addition of ten degrees is often required in its transit from San Francisco to the head of the valley, a distance little rising fifty miles. This increase of temperature in the air is accompanied with an increase in its capacity for moisture, hence it is usual to find a slight aqueous haze, which results from the condensation of its moisture, hanging about this en

tire range of hills during the summer months, and is usually seen early in the morning.

At this time and for a short time after sun-rise the leaves of plants in these hills are covered with moisture, when no trace of this deposit is observable on the plains. The foreign horticulturist seems to have seized upon the natural advantages which these mountains present for the culture of the vine and other fruits, prefering these elevated situations to the lower plain lands, the climate and soil being more congenial to their growth. The altitude at which the first qualities of the grape will flourish in these mountains (Monte Diablo Range) is seventeen hundred feet above the sea, the fruit produced equals th t grown in lower situations ; the temperature at this elevation through the night is higher than on the plains at their base, and sufficiently comfortable to sleep without shelter.

But a very few years will elapse before these "barren" mountains will yield a handsome income to the planter, and a large revenue to the State, from the taxable property that will be found in these mountains, arising from the production of the vine alone ; some idea of the extent to which it is now being propagated may be obtained when it is stated that nearly two hundred thousand sets have been put into the ground during the past year, and on one ranch alone over twelve thousand new sets were placed in the ground last season, in addition to those already in bearing condition on the same farm.

The absence of timber in these mountains is one of the most serious objections to the settler, if this objection can be removed there is no reason to doubt but that large tracts of this fertile district would command a population that would soon approximate that on the plains. It would not be difficult to produce a forest growth of trees upon these mountains, one that would prove useful as well as ornamental, conducing to health, comfort and luxury, as well as profit. The history of the Guava furnishes us with some facts on this point that are well worthy of notice; the tree is of rapid growth, spreading itself over large districts in a very few years. In Mexico it attains a height of forty feet, and grows at elevations of five thousand feet; its wood is used for fuel and many other purposes, and from its fruit the guava jelly is manufactured, and forms an extensive article of commerce.

Fifty years ago this tree was introduced at the Sandwich and Society Islands; it has in that short period of time formed one of the principal forest trees of those islands, and reaches the summit of their highest hills. A tree of this kind introduced into our timberless hills would in a short time render the barren aspect they now present, more pleasing and profitable as well as useful. There can be but little doubt that this tree will flourish in this country, as it is found so to do in a climate equally cool as that in which it would be required here. Other varieties of fruit bearing trees of foreign climates will flourish in these mountains; among them may be mentioned the date, prune and fig, and in this country we possess an advantage in the preparation of the two latter fruits for the market, which is seldom found even in countries where they flourish best, viz: a clear, dry air, or containing but a small degree of moisture, a most essential requisite in forming a good commercial article. Often the entire fruit crop is ruined in the drying process in countries where these fruits abound, (and where all

conditions for their propagation are not more fully developed than in this country,) from the presence of too great a quantity of moisture in the air, a circumstance that cannot exist in this country south of the county of San Francisco.

We have the most ample proofs of the capabilities of our soils in the interior, in the production of the foreign fruits. In addition to the above, the olive and the almond flourish and produce plentifully, and though the latter is not indigenous, the luxuriance with which it grows and its plentiful production of fruit, must be received only as another evidence of the fact above stated. The value of these fruits as regards their quality, suffers no deterioration from having been naturalized to our climate, but in the case of the latter named fruit, it is found to be materially benefitted by the change, for as it loses none of its flavor it becomes the more valuable from its increase of size, being nearly double that of the ordinary fruit of the market.

Respecting the main body of lands on the valley and shores of the bay, but very little of which is not adapted to agricultural purposes, it may be said to cover an area little short of six hundred square miles, nearly all of which is adapted to the cultivation of the cereals and root crops. The higher table of the valley produces excellent corn, and the season though dry permits this crop to mature well. I observed several corn fields on the high terrace of the valley last season, flourishing well at altitudes of three hundred and sixty to four hundred and ten feet, and in localities where it would hardly be supposed from its external appearance, that moisture sufficient to rear a blade of grass could be found. The cause of this productiveness in these localities, is in a great measure attributable to the existence of a small quantity of sulphate of lime in these apparently dry soils, derived from a limestone formation in these mountains, and which extends south beyond the Almaden district. The detritus of this rock is found mingled with fragments of other rocks containing ferruginous pyrites in a decomposing state, hence the key to its appearance in this locality, and in the case before it serves the purpose of an absorbent of moisture, thus materially facilitating the growth of crops in these sections.

ARTICLE VI.

The Universal Prime Mover.

We publish the following description of a new power at the request of the discoverer. We express no opinion respecting its merits, but are informed that scientific and practical individuals who have examined the model think favorably of the invention. It is obvious that if the views and calculations of the projector should be realized, he will occupy a place in the front rank of modern inventors.

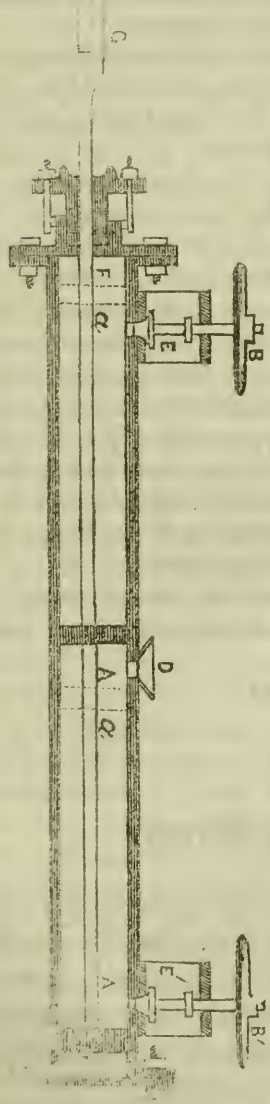
We are informed that it will cost about five hundred dollars to make a working machine. Not possessing means to construct a complete model, Mr. Graham desires to find some enterprising individual who

will advance the amount necessary and take an interest in the discovery. Will not some of our intelligent and public spirited citizens call on Mr. G. and examine into the merits of his discovery? This much at least, is due to one who has devoted his time and talents in search of a cheaper and more convenient motive power than any hitherto brought into use.

MERCHANTS' EXCHANGE, No. 78 Chesnut street,
St. Louis, Mo., July 4th, 1854.

SIR:—I hope you will give the following description of a machine which has been modelled in this city, a place in your Journal.

I have called it "THE UNIVERSAL PRIME MOVER."



G, is a Piston Rod, having two heads A, A′, moving air-tight in a Cylinder F, F′. In the center D, is a conical aperture for admitting the external atmospheric pressure to the piston heads A, A′. There are holes at E, E′ with air-tight valves, through which any air that gets in, between the piston heads and these holes, is expelled by every stroke.

The action of the cylinder is produced by moving the pistons until the heads come into the position of the dotted lines a, a′; and then letting them shoot backwards to the end marked F′.

The motion thus produced is continuous and accumulative.

In proof: Previous to motion the air is in equilibrium throughout the cylinder. On moving the pistons into the position a, a′, the air in the portion from A, to E, is expelled, the small quantity in F, is compressed, that in F′ expands from F′ to a′, and becomes greatly rarified, while the valve E′ is tightened down by the external atmospheric pressure.

On letting the pistons go, the piston a, propelled by the compressed air in F, and the piston a′, by the atmospheric pressure through D, shoot into F′, where the air is again compressed, and the action renewed.

The degree of compression in F, F′, can be accurately regulated by the length of the crank of the Flywheel, to which it is attached; and the latter by its momentum aids the before mentioned causes in giving the pistons a reverse motion at the end of each stroke.

We see, therefore, a continuous reaction. The power being constant, viz: the atmospheric pressure through D, and the vacuum being constant; as the pistons alternately expel any air, that may leak into the cylinder, through the valves E, E′.

It is also accumulative; as the whole momentum of each stroke is added to the constant pressure through D, by the recoil of the compressed air in F, F′—and this addition far exceeds the friction of the pistons, which is not more than 30 lbs.

The theoretical power of this cylinder is very great. Ex. gr.: Suppose the internal length to be 3′ 0½″, the diam. 3″, and the distance between the center of the valve holes and the ends of the cylinder 2⅝″, we have the following results.

The column of air in F′, is 2⅝″ long. The distance between F′ and a′, into which it will expand, is 1′ 4″, allowing 1½″ for the thickness of the piston heads, and supposing it to stop within ½ in. of the hole D. Hence $\frac{21}{128}$=·16406, is the ratio of its expansion, and 14·7÷16406 =2·41 lbs. per square inch is the reduced pressure of the rarified air in the portion a′, F′; so 14·7–2·41=12·29 lbs. is the working pressure per square inch of the external atmosphere. Deducting the area of the ⅞″ rod, the area of each piston acted upon by the atmosphere is 6·46 square inches, and 12·29÷6.46=79·39 lbs. is the total pressure.

From the model I have here, I estimate the friction of the pistons and rod at 30 lbs. This leaves 49.39 lbs. for the effective pressure.

The velocity of air rushing into a vacuum has been estimated at 1296 feet in a second. Hence, 1296–(1296÷·16406)=1083.38 feet per second, will be the velocity due to the vacuum above stated; and 49·39÷1083.38=53,508·13 lbs. is the momentum of the first stroke, after deducting friction and allowing for the deficiency of the vacuum. If, however, the crank is of such a length as to compress the air in F, F′, to a length of ⅞ in., we have a force of 2.71 atmospheres added to the pressure, or 39.83 lbs. per square inch, on the ends of the pistons next F, F′. Hence, as the area of the head next F′ is 7·06 inches, we have (12·29÷6.46)÷(39·88÷7.06)=360·58 lbs. for the pressure of the second stroke, and (deducting friction) 330·58÷1083 38=328,143·76 lbs. is the momentum of the second stroke.

It is evident, that this engine will accumulate momentum to any limit that iron can bear, unless the vacuum is cut off, before the pistons reach the holes E, E.′

The handles B, B′ being raised stop the engine, by preventing the formation of the vacuum. There are various ways of working these valves, so as to procure any degree of vacuum lower than 12·29 lbs. per square inch, and consequently of varying the velocity and power at will.

This machine originates an idea never put forward before—that of a *continuously increasing* "Perpetual motion"—showing that there is no limit to velocity or power but the consistency of matter. It allows of the direct action of what philosophers have called Gravity—without any artificial medium.

"I made this machine for driving an Aeronout" (which I hope will be shortly taken up by those interested in the advancement of mankind) as it does not require coal, or water, and altogether weighs only about 120 lbs. It is applicable for any kind of locomotion; will drive buggies or omnibusses, ploughs or any other agricultural instruments, Any one willing to test the machine by steam, (as the present model is not sufficiently perfect to work air tight,) can do so at Mr. Gill-

fort's foundry, opposite the Gas Works, and if willing to patent it. Mr. Graham will be glad to treat with him.

Hoping you will give this communication a place in your Publication, I am, sir, very respectfully, &c.

ALEX J. GRAHAM.

Article VII.

(From the U. S. Mining Journal.)

ON THE DECOMPOSITION OF ROCKS, AND THE RE-COMPOSITION OF THEIR METALLIC CONSTITUENTS.

BY JOHN CALVERT, ESQ.

The large quantity of gold found in the detritus of Australia, California and other acknowledged gold regions, has called forth much speculation from many scientific minds as to the origin of so much alluvial gold, when the sources from which it appeared to emanate (viz., the quartz veins,) have so generally failed to produce it on being entered into or worked below the surface, thereby causing so much disappointment to gold mining speculations, the promoters thinking they had only to rip open the goose to ensure to themselves a plentiful harvest of golden eggs. The delusions and failures of gold quartz companies are such acknowledged facts, that it will be unnecessary for me to enter upon that part of the subject here. The origin or development of gold may be thus classified,—viz.:

1. When precipitation takes place simultaneously with the intrusion and upheaval of the palæozoic formation.

2. An after-precipitation, through the electric and atmospheric decomposition of the various rocks and metalliferous formations.

But a small portion of the gold we use owes its origin to the first circumstances; and gold having a surface determination, it will always precipitate itself there, and therefore would long ago have been an extinct metal in inhabited countries, were it not for the fact of the after precipitation and development which is always going on wherever the matrix containing it is thrown under circumstances sufficiently kind to render the decomposition of the matrix favourable to the re-composition of the gold it may contain.

By far the greater portion of the gold we obtain at the various diggings and mines, ows its relation and development to this after-precipitation. The vast granite ranges in Australia and other places, the flanks of which are so constantly undergoing decomposition, and keeping up the supply of detritus and sand in the rivers and creeks which flow from them, are not found to contain any gold at the head of the said creek, or in the granite detritus, until it has been washed into hollows, and beds of creeks and rivers, in company with an accumulation of organic matter; then, when sufficient moisture, the battery-power is active enough to precipitate the gold in nodules of various

sizes, just in the same way that flint forms in chalk, or iron in bogs. An atmospheric decomposition of granite, containing a very small quantity of any other metal, is not sufficient to develope the gold it contains; but in the case of many of the various metallic ores, when in their combination exists sufficient of the opposing metal to create a self-acting battery, they will, after being exposed to a succession of winters' rain and summers' heat, be decomposed, and the gold and other metals it contains will be found to have re-composed themselves in other chemical states. But in many cases of rapid decomposition the waste of such a tender electric metal as gold will be very great, and more especially when decomposed by heat.

Nature's workings are beautiful, but in many instances very slow. If we would work gold on a large scale, we must seek it in other forms than its precipitated or metallic state; or the alternative will be to vigilantly search for the comparatively small quantity precipitated, and having worked that, wait patiently for some centuries whilst Nature accumulates more. I have watched the decomposition of rocks in many countries, have studied this subject the greater part of my lifetime, and have long since fallen into all the blunders and errors that so singularly characterise the gold-seeker's career, and which seem to so engross the public mind at present.

Whilst on my geological researches in Australia, in 1846, I discovered a boulder of granite, partially embedded in rich black soil, at the side of a river; it seemed as though it had been undisturbed for many years, it was in a state of decomposition. On the under side it was mostly decomposed, and tinged with the oxide of iron; I could pick that part to pieces with my fingers; there were visible nodules of gold in all that portion that yielded to my fingers; there was no gold visible in the upper portion. This was a problem set me by Nature, which I toiled for many weeks and months to solve; many were the experiments and methods I fruitlessly tried. I could decompose the upper portion of that block of granite, but the gold was wanting. After some time I travelled back to the spot from which I had obtained it, carefully watched the chemical and electric conditions under which it had there been acted upon. I returned, tried fresh experiments, and succeeded in decomposing a piece of the upper portion of the granite block; the only difference was, that the grains of gold obtained were smaller than those formed by the natural process. Ever since that time I have been able to perform the same experiment successfully upon rocks and ores, providing they contained any.

Now, as the great and Almighty Providence has so generously seen fit to invest in man the power to assist and force so many of Nature's productions, may it not likewise be within his scope to forestall Nature's decomposition of the vast masses she so slowly attacks, and by artificial means to perform that in a week or month which otherwise would take years or centuries?

As to the exact geological period at which the palæozoic rocks became severally charged with gold, and under what electric law and then existing condition of polarity it was dispelled and distributed, is beyond the limits of this brief paper to discuss; sufficient for my present subject that it has been found locally distributed in the older form-

ations, and in the debris accumulated from them, over the whole world, wherever it has been looked for. All the largest masses of gold that have yet been found show undoubted proofs of having emanated from various quartz veins, and to have been mere surface incrustations belonging to those veins.

I have often stated that gold has a surface determination, and I believe all that found its way to the surface, simultaneously with the formations being charged, providing the temperature and magnetic force were congenial, immediately precipitated itself there.

I divided my subject into two classes:—

1. When precipitation takes place simultaneously with the intrusion and upheaval of the palæozoic formation.

2. An after-precipitation, through the electric and atmospheric decomposition of the various rocks and metalliferous formations.

I do not mean to convey the idea that all the ancient intruded rocks have charged the surrounding formations with gold; that gold may now be found in some of the oldest granites is a fact beyond doubt, but I believe its owes its presence there to some of the youngest and most recent intrusions and disturbances—patches and portions only of the surrounding rocks become charged; in many instances boulders of granite that have traveled from their original position contain none, whilst the mountain mass, from which they seem to have been torn, is largely charged with it. For instance, take the districts of Maneroo and Gipp's Land, in Australia, where you will find scattered over their extensive plains two distinct classes of boulders, both of which seem to have traveled many miles, and in some instances both seem to have arrived at pretty nearly the same place, but evidently by different routes, and most certainly at distinct and widely intervening periods of time. The oldest boulders are mostly polished, and some appear much ground, and are all in good preservation: in no one instance did they contain any gold when operated upon by my decomposing process, when tracing them to their apparent original source, — viz.: rocks forming part of the Snowy Mountain range, I found Nature was making great inroads upon them by rapid decomposition, but upon subjecting a portion of the solid rock to my process, it gave me gold. I likewise washed some of the debris from the bottom of a creek close by, from which I obtained little angular nodules of gold. As to the more recent boulders, most of those I tried contained gold. Many of these were under various stages of decomposition, and most likely owed their boulder origin to the decomposition of the external mass, and the spherical flakes which the frost is daily splitting off from the angular rocks that are constantly breaking away from the mountains from which they have been drifted.

When gold is found accompanying magnetic iron, wolfram, the surface oxides of tin or iron, ferruginous earths and clays, it will always be in its metallic state. Iron, antimony, blende, and several other opposite metals, will often precipitate gold in veins below the surface, provided there is some flookan, or other moist ground, accompanying the vein, to allow of a sufficient strength of electric current to throw down the metal.

Mercury will never touch gold in any other than its metallic state; and wherever mercury will obtain gold, it may likewise be obtained

by careful washing: there is no mystery in the subject, for if you have metallic gold in your ores it is one of the simplest matters to extract it.

As to roasting the ores, that is one way of getting rid of sulphur, arsenic, bismuth, and other volatile substances, so frequently found associated with gold; but it is likewise a capital mode of dissipating a great portion of the gold, if not all, and may never be performed with impunity, unless the gold is in the form of pure grains or strings. In nearly all cases where the gold is non-metallic, and even where it exists in its delicate and almost invisible feathery form, interlacing itself with some of the most treacherously volatile metals, it would be indiscrete to subject the ore to so violent an electric decomposition, as it would most certainly have to undergo in the calcining or roasting furnace.

I am sorry to see the subject of the chemical conditions and arrangements under which gold may be volatilised at a low temperature so little understood. The rocks and formations into which gold has been charged in its most subtle and hidden form are many of the limestones, shales, talcose, chloritic and other shists, quartz, gneiss, granites, and many of the formations, ranging from the carboniferous series downwards. Granites that have not been re-disturbed will never contain any; the syenites, and other recent hornblendic intrusions seem to have been the most prolific in charging their surrounding formations with gold. I have frequently found in the red surface earth near trapean rocks, and most veins carrying sulphur, that seem to be in any way distorted by it, will, with very few exceptions, contain gold in one or other of its delicate chemical forms.

[From the Placer Times & Transcript.]

LIFE AMONG THE MORMONS.

Mr. Wallace, the editor of the *Los Angelos Star*, writes as follows concerning this singular people whom he has recently visited at their stronghold in the County of San Bernardino, in this State. Outsiders who are possessed with anything like a spirit of candor, universally give them the name of having the best regulated, energetic, and honest communities that exist in any country, with the exception perhaps, of one practice of very doubtful morality, which is allowed, and by some of the more fanatical among them, even encouraged. Those who have had the misery of being put through a course of sprouts by some of those ingenious instruments of torture, San Francisco lawyers and Courts, will fully apprecaite the good sense and sound judgment they display in starving such institutions out of their midst; this alone should excuse any amount of folly they might be guilty of in other respects.

It is not yet three years since the Mormons settled in San Bernardino. Then it was a mere range for cattle; but by organized industry and well directed labor, it has now become one of the most important and fruitful portions of the State. And the system

which prevails among them, in political matters, of voting one way — of uttering their sentiments as by the voice of one man, will, with their increasing numbers, give them great power. They are neither Whigs nor Democrats, and their practice is to go for their friends. By their unity in this respect, they are destined, in close contests, to control elections.

After a first visit among them, one is struck with the stillness and apparent dullness of the place; but this arises from the order of labor, which their system imposes upon every member. There are no idlers. Every one must produce according to his capacity. And all their labors go on in the most systematic manner. Some are ditching for the irrigation of the land; some are cutting timber in the mountains; others are hauling it to the plain; some are looking after stock; some are building; some trading. Every one doing something, with a view to permanent utility. Their property is not held in common, but the Church and each individual is benefitted by the labors of all the rest. So far as industry in the development of the resources of their lands is concerned, there is not a community in the State that can compare with them.

The ranch is situated at the mouth of the Cajon Pass, and all the travel hence to Salt Lake passes through the city. In the Cajon there is abundance of water for mills and for irrigation, and it is carried over the bottom lands in every direction, and will be brought through every street of the new city.

The old fort, with its ungainly proportions, will soon be abandoned. The new city, which is located a little to the east of it, is surveyed, and the lots are now offered for sale at an average price of one hundred dollars. There are already two or three handsome buildings erected, and several more are in progress. Bishop Crosby is about erecting a large hotel, which he means shall be an ornament to the city.

Their wheat crop at present is in fine condition, and if the season continues favorable, they will be able to supply a large proportion of the flour needed in this market. Last year they lost much of their wheat from rust, but their faith is strong that the blight will not now come near them.

The Mormons never go to law, and it is very evident that they do not wish any outsider to come among them for that purpose. They have an aversion for lawyers as stirrers up of litigation. No case has ever yet come before the State courts, in which the Mormons were parties. All their differences are settled in the "Bishop's Court," where each party choses a referee, and their decision is final. They have no jail, and when they find a criminal, they put him in chains and set him to ditching or some other public improvement. It does a man no good, they say, to confine him; besides, confinement is an expense to the community, and they cannot afford to support any man in idleness. The term of the District Court was held there on Monday; but the clerk being absent,

and the deputy excusing his attendance on the ground of sickness, the docket was transferred bodily to Los Angelos county.

The impression of some of the parties, was, that the Mormons did not wish to have their territory used for the settlement of the disputes of the ungodly: inasmuch as the example they set was not wholesome to a community whose lives are devoted to the building up of the Lord's kingdom on this earth.

There are many intelligent men and women among the Mormons; and if we are to believe them, they are the most happy community in the world. No thieves, no jails, no rowdies, and no grog shops. They serve the Lord in all their daily labors. The interests of the church is part and parcel of every contract. They hold on with great tenacity to the tenets of their faith, and to the revelations of the prophet Joseph, and have ever been ready to suffer for their faith's sake.

We put them down as polytheists, believing however in a great First Cause. They regard Adam as the god or governing spirit of this planet. Their belief in a state of future rewards and punishments, as explained to us, is this: That by a strict adherence to, and faithful performance of, all the requirements as revealed to them by the properly delegated authority, (what they term "obeying council,") they will reach a "state of exaltation" in a future world; in other words, will be made "kings and rulers over principalities and powers;" their wives and children being sealed or married to them in this world, as also their children's children unto the latest generation, thus enabling them to stand with dignity among the just made perfect, as head and ruler of a great generation. This is their chief "exaltation." The neglect of duty and the practice of the cardinal virtues in this world, is punished by witnessing the elevation of old associates, while they are compelled to move in a subordinate and subservient capacity. They believe that after death they are re-united to their wives and families, and occupy the same positions and engage in the same pursuits on this sphere, that they did while in the flesh.

They found their practice of polygamy upon the necessity of increasing their families, and this doctrine is strenuously advocated by intelligent ladies. But we will give these ladies the benefit of this remark—however sincere they may have been in their advocacy of this doctrine with us, they allow no divided affection in their own houses. These ladies proclaimed polygamy as a beautiful conformity to the laws of God. The happiness and unity of this people, as related to us by the few we were able to converse with, gave us pleasant impressions; but we could not help thinking that, could we have mingled with the masses, and listened to their tales, we might have heard things not so favorable. Polygamy may be good for population; but we do not believe it increases human affection, nor does it develope the "sweet little courtesies" which render social life agreeable. Mormonism may be good; but we believe in something better.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

General Statement of the value of goods, wares and merchandize, of the growth, produce and manufacture of the United States exported, commencing July 1, 1852, and ending June 30, 1853.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS.			
	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	To each country.	To the dominions of each Power.
Russia	$1,805,048	$508,127	$2,313,175	$2,313,175
Prussia	.....	26,911	26,911	26,911
Sweden and Norway	441,742	391,791	833,533	864,557
Swedish West Indies	31,024	.....	31,024	
Denmark	39,757	43,146	82,903	996,384
Danish West Indies	492,184	421,297	913,481	
Hanse Towns	2,175,725	5,233,590	7,409,315	7,409,315
Holland	872,780	1,110,943	1,983,723	2,546,192
Dutch East Indies	192,757	10,065	202,822	
Dutch West Indies	230,697	20,561	251,258	
Dutch Guiana	104,112	4,277	108,389	
Belgium	2,117,447	183,591	2,301,038	2,301,038
England	67,083,831	45,694,528	112,778,359	13,5821,112
Scotland	2,841,681	1,645,144	4,486,825	
Ireland	112,116	501,696	613,812	
Gibraltar	149,017	20,427	169,444	
Malta	121,532	43,787	165,319	
St. Helena	.....	11,189	11,189	
Cape of Good Hope	341,145	26,086	367,231	
British East Indies	492,667	.....	492,667	
Mauritius	.....	3,338	3,338	
Honduras	255,370	62,985	318,355	
British Guiana	660,964	107,877	798,841	
British West Indies	2,901,622	1,154,905	4,056,527	
Canada	1,789,512	2,216,000	4,005,512	
British American Colonies	823,900	2,574,675	3,398,575	
Australia	3,969,874	178,954	4,148,828	
Hanover	.....	6,290	6,290	
France on the Atlantic	22,829,999	1,438,293	24,268,292	25,556,659
France on the Mediterranean	801,477	51,037	852,514	
French Guiana	64,335	.....	64,335	
French West Indies	215,890	146,623	362,513	
Miquelon & other French Fish.	5,742	3,263	9,005	
Spain on the Atlantic	356,498	274,996	631,494	11,226,570
Spain on the Mediterranean	337,358	3,586,298	3,923,656	
Teneriffe and other Canaries	16,006	7,209	23,215	
Manilla & Philippine Islands	64,375	.....	64,375	
Cuba	5,538,813	234,606	5,773,419	
Other Spanish West Indies	737,330	73,081	810,411	
Portugal	132,599	91,052	223,651	369,757
Madeira	89,183	12,341	101,524	
Fayal and other Azores	21,307	.....	21,307	
Cape de Verd Island	23,275	.....	23,275	
Italy generally	1,616,354	557,391	2,173,745	2,173,745
Sicily	116,765	13,572	130,337	130,337
Sardinia	33,120	162,260	195,380	195,380
Tuscany	14,300	873	15,173	15,173
Trieste & other Aust. ports	1,434,668	627,816	2,062,484	2,062,484
Turkey, Levant, &c.	207,358	.....	207,358	207,358

General statement of the value of goods, &c., Exported, &c.
Continued.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS.			
	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	To each country.	To the dominions of each Power.
Hayti	$1,530,086	$208,327	$1,738,413	$1,738,413
Mexico	2,348,101	145,669	2,529,770	2,529,770
Central Republic of America	204,036	21,820	225,856	225,856
New Grenada	726,978	26,413	753,391	753,391
Venezuela	696,160	53,699	749,859	749,859
Brazil	3,511,756	222,434	3,734,190	3,734,190
Oriental Republic of Uruguay	261,876	34,212	296,088	296,088
Argentine Republic	552,477	66,378	618,855	618,855
Bolivia	41,572	.....	41,572	41,572
Peru	512,147	145,169	657,316	657,316
Chili	2,051,985	105,335	2,157,320	2,157,320
China	3,212,574	.....	3,212,574	3,212,574
West Indies generally	90,271	7,854	98,125	98,125
South America generally	153,451	.....	153,451	153,451
Asia generally	6,868	.....	6,868	6,868
Africa generally	1,469,791	86,199	1,555,990	1,555,999
Indian Ocean	11,816	.....	11,816	11,816
South Seas and Pacific Ocean	658,825	1,271	660,096	660,096
Total	142,810,026	70,607,671	213,417,697	213,417,697

F. BIGGER, Register.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Register's Office, December 22, 1853.

Summary statement of the value of the exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the U. S., during the year commencing on the 1st of July, 1852, and ending on the 30th of June, 1853, inclusive.

PRODUCT OF THE SEA.			
Fisheries—			
Oil, spermaceti	.....	$1,418,845	
Oil, whale and other fish	.....	223,247	
Whalebone	.....	1,063,705	
Spermaceti candles	.....	112,600	
Dried or smoked fish	.....	371,607	
Pickled fish	.....	89,409	
			$3,279,413
PRODUCT OF THE FOREST.			
Wood—			
Staves&heading,shingles,boards,hew'd tim.	$2,578,149		
Other lumber	123,743		
Masts and spars	129,628		
Oak bark and other dye	118,894		
All manufactures of	2,294,122		
Naval stores, tar, pitch,rosin,and turpentine	1,406,488		
Ashes, pot and pearl	334,321		
		6.985,345	
Gin seng	.....	133,813	
Skins and furs	.....	796,101	
			7,915,259
PRODUCT OF AGRICULTURE.			
Of animals—			
Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle	2,214,554		
Butter and cheese	862,343		
Pork (pickled), bacon, lard, live hogs	6,202,324		

Summary statement of the value of goods, &c., Exported, &c.

Continued.

Horses and mules	246,73		
Sheep	17 80		
Wool	26,56		
		9,570,327	
Vegetable food—			
Wheat	4,354,40		
Flour	14,783,39		
Indian corn	1,374,07		
Indian meal	709,97		
Rye meal	34,18		
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse	165,' 24		
Biscuit or ship-bread	454,02		
Potatoes	152,569		
Apples	107,283		
Rice	1,657,658		
		23,793,388	
			$33,363,715
Cotton			109,456,404
Tobacco			11,319,319
Hemp			18,195
Other agricultural products—			
Flaxseed		7,719	
Hops		40,054	
Brown sugar		33,854	
Indigo		36	
			81,663
MANUFACTURES.			
Wax		113,602	
Refined sugar		375,780	
Chocolate		10,230	
Spirits from grain		141,173	
Spirit from molasses		329,381	
Molasses		17,582	
Vinegar		20,443	
Beer, ale, porter and cider		64,677	
Linseed oil		15,468	
Spirits of turpentine		347,492	
Household furniture		714,556	
Coaches and other carriages		184,497	
Hats		91,261	
Saddlery		48,229	
Tallow candles and soap		681,362	
Snuff and tobacco		1,671,500	
Leather, boots and shoes		673,708	
Cables and cordage		103,216	
Gunpowder		180,048	
Salt		119,729	
Lead		5,510	
Iron—			
Pig, bar and nails		181,998	
Castings		220 420	
All manufactures of		2,097,234	
Copper and brass, and manufactures of		108,205	
Medical drugs		327,073	
			8,844,404
Cotton piece goods—			
Printed or colored	1,086,16		
Uncolored	6,926,485		
Cotton—			
Thread and yarn, &c	22,594		
All manufactures of	733,648		

Summary statement of the value of goods, &c., Exported, &c.

(*Continued.*)

Flax and hemp			
Cloth and thread		2,924	
Bags and other manufactures of		13,860	
Wearing apparel		239,733	
Earthen and stone ware		53,685	
Combs and buttoes		31,395	
Brushes of all kinds		6,612	
Billiard tables and apparatus		1,673	
Umbrellas, parasols and sun-shades		6,183	
Morocco&other leather not sold by the pound		6,448	
Fire-engines and apparatus		9,652	
Printing presses and type		32,250	
Musical instruments		52,397	
Books and maps		142,604	
Paper and stationery		122,212	
Paints and varnish		83,020	
Glass		170,561	
Tin		22,988	
Pewter and lead		14,064	
Marble and stone		47,628	
Gold and silver and gold leaf		11,873	
Gold and silver coin		23,548,535	
Artificial flowers and jewelry		66,397	
Trunks		27,148	
Brick and lime		32,625	
			33,515,361
Coal			336,003
Ice			175,056
Articles not enumerated			
Manufactured			3,788,700
Raw produce			1,324,205
Total			213,417,697

F. BIGGER, Register.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Register's Office, December 23, 1853.

Statement of the value of goods, wares, and merchandize imported into the United States from each country during the year ending June 30th, 1853.

WHENCE IMPORTED.	VALUE OF MERCAHANDISE FROM EACH COUNTRY.					
	Free of duty.	Paying Duties.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign ssel .	From the dominionof each power
Russia	$24,404	1,254,097	1,278,501	1,242,061	26,440	$1,278,501
Prussia	126	47,749	47,875	31,687	16,188	47,875
Sweden and Norway	870	446,462	447,332	182,577	264,755	454,208
Swedish West Indies	4,559	2,317	6,876	6,393	483	
Danish West Indies	21,594	162,903	184,497	151,931	32,566	184,497
Hanse Towns	64,483	13,778,972	13,843,455	8,193,304	5,650,151	13,843,455
Holland	115,227	1,509,943	1,625,170	462,641	1,162,529	2,549,619
Dutch East Indies	326,675	57,908	384,583	321,106	63,477	
Dutch West Indies	31,619	377,566	409,185	401,154	8,031	
Dutch Guiana	600	130,081	130,681	113,439	17,242	
Belgium	3,155	2,729,013	2,732,168	2,229,808	502,360	2,732,168
England	2,411,157	123,363,065	125,774,232	79,059,858	46,714,374	143,219,478
Scotland	1,587	4,336,403	4,337,990	996,964	3,341,026	
Ireland	2,453	150,665	153,118	24,540	128,578	
Gibraltar	.....	61,784	61,784	30,544	31,240	
Malta	1,960	78,093	80,053	44,800	35,253	
British East Indies	114,088	3,467,638	3,581,726	3,280,320	301,406	
Cape of Good Hope	1,101	301,202	302,303	226,820	75,483	
British Honduras	37,360	230,938	268,298	259,132	9,166	
British Guiana	22,856	41,677	64,533	47,411	17,122	
New Zealand	.....	241	241	241	.....	
British West Indies	219,124	825,140	1,044,264	658,355	385,909	
British American Colonies	238,568	2,034,034	272,602	318,058	1,954,544	
Canada	1,179,682	4,098,434	5,278,116	2,714,256	2,563,860	
Hanover	.....	218	218	.....	218	
France on the Atlantic	322,327	30,529,222	30,851,549	28,702,062	2,149,487	33,525,999
France on the Mediterranean	671	2,603,722	2,604,393	1,946,657	657,736	
French Guiana	7,100	10,617	17,717	17,717	.....	
French West Indies	23,161	29,179	52,340	25,698	26,642	

Spain on the Atlantic	11,531	624,115	635,646	418,742	216,904	
Spain on the Mediterranean	1,822	1,457,057	1,458,879	985,400	473,479	
Teneriffe and other Canaries	460	83,561	84,021	30,619	53,402	
Manilla and Philippine Islands	35,336	2,429,747	2,465,083	2,156,551	308,532	26,030,820
Cuba	268,467	18,327,288	18,585,755	17,685,745	900,010	
Other Spanish West Indies	36,362	2,764,574	2,800,936	2,240,264	560,672	
Portugal	.....	411,155	411,155	130,042	281,113	
Madeira	.....	77,598	77,598	61,236	16,362	
Fayal and other Azores	.....	10,892	10,892	10,892	.....	540,698
Cape de Verd Islands	15,416	25,637	41,053	41,053	.....	
Italy	24,064	929,650	953,714	718,076	235,635	953,714
Sicily	27,931	835,420	863,351	373,260	490,091	863,351
Sardinia	1,594	169,989	171,583	19,718	151,865	171,583
Tuscany	13,120	843,497	856,617	768,937	87,680	856,617
Trieste and other Austrian ports	21,742	506,825	528,567	253,876	274,691	528,567
Turkey, Levant, &c	4,829	722,687	727,516	684,409	43,107	727,516
Greece	.....	4,550	4,550	.....	4,550	4,550
Hayti	1,640,752	344,872	1,985,624	1,615,067	370,557	1,985,624
Mexico	1,416,033	751,952	2,167,985	1,953,741	214,244	2,167,985
Central Republic of America	499,670	91,267	590,937	581,379	9,558	590,937
New Grenada	309,510	244,018	553,258	457,789	95,739	553,528
Venezuela	1,144,166	1,469,614	2,613,780	2,154,392	459,388	2,613,780
Brazil	11,859,166	2,958,795	14,817,961	11,302,753	3,515,208	14,817,961
Oriental Republic of Uruguay	4,447	298,533	302,980	239,585	63,395	302,980
Argentine Republic	23,989	2,162,652	2,186,641	1,553,256	633,385	2,186,641
Chili	394,902	1,819,350	2,214,252	1,823,357	390,895	2,214,252
Peru	96,029	77,412	173,441	131,564	41,877	173,441
Equador	.....	12,600	12,600	12,600	.....	12,600
China	8,180,165	2,393,545	10,573,710	10,355,995	217,715	10,573,710
Asia generally	59	32,662	32,721	32,721	.....	32,721
Africa generally	162,915	1,040,071	1,202,986	1,175,934	27,052	1,202,986
South America generally	19,390	.....	19,390	12,440	6,950	19,390
South Seas and Pacific Ocean	.....	796	796	796	.....	796
Atlantic Ocean and uncertain places	.....	24	24	24	.....	24
Sandwich Islands	3,150	13,425	16,575	16,575	.....	16,575
Total	31,383,534	236,595,113	267,978,647	191,688,325	76,290,322	267,978,647

Statistical view of the commerce of the U. S., exhibiting the value nage of American and foreign vessels arriving from and departing

COUNTRIES.	COMMERCE.		
	Value of Exports.		
	Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	Total.
Russia	$2,313,175	$143,478	$2,456,653
Prussia	26,911	1,806	28,717
Sweden and Norway	833,533	18 735	852,268
Swedish West Indies	31,024	1,191	32,215
Denmark	82,903	.....	82,903
Danish West Indies	913,481	41,160	945,641
Hanse Towns	7,409,315	610,738	8,020,053
Holland	1,983,723	215,773	2,199,496
Dutch East Indies	202,822	180,884	383,706
Dutch West Indies	251,258	18,789	270,047
Dutch Guiana	108,389	17,694	126,083
Belgium	2,301,038	907,495	3,208,533
England	112,778,359	3,209,264	115,987,623
Scotland	4,486,825	154,739	4,641,564
Ireland	613,812	59,272	673,084
Gibraltar	169,444	66,570	236,014
Malta	165,319	22,237	187,556
British East Indies	503,856	63,542	567,398
Cape of Good Hope	367,231	3,141	370,372
Mauritius	3,338	.....	3,338
British Honduras	318,355	63,005	381,360
British Guiana	798,841	38,863	837,704
New Zealand	.....	.....	.....
British West Indies	4,056,527	106,081	4,162,608
British American Colonies	3,398,575	1,912,968	5,311,543
Canada	4,005,512	3,823,587	7,829,099
Hanover	6,290	.....	6,290
Australia	4,148,828	138,174	4,287,002
Falkland Islands	.....	.....	.....
Other British Possessions	.....	71,069	71,069
France on the Atlantic	24,268,292	1,380,647	25,648,939
France on the Mediterran	852,514	70,331	922,845
French West Indies	362,513	35,738	398,251
Miquelon & French Fisher	9,005	.....	9,005
French Guiana	64,335	1,104	65,439
Bourbon	.....	.....	.....
French possess. in Africa	.....	.....	.....
Spain on the Atlantic	631,494	15,551	647,045
Spain on the Mediterran.	3,923,656	34,297	3,957,953

of exports to and imports from each foreign country, and the ton-
to each foreign country, during the year ending June 30, 1853.

Value of imports.	NAVIGATION.			
	American tonnage.		Foreign tonnage.	
	Entered the U. S.	Cleared from the U. S.	Entered the U. S.	Cleared from the U. S.
$1,278,501	10,455	11,958	1,013	5,297
47,875	374	.....	.....	293
447,332	3,563	3,217	13,552	6,153
6,876	1,184	1,136	53	.....
.....	350	332	.....	2,174
184,497	11,618	14,032	4,965	9,571
13,843,455	36,561	26,995	138,788	85,281
1,625,170	10,776	10,302	15,074	20,730
384,583	2,864	3,526	1,252	6,605
409,185	17,590	5,988	3,602	409
130,681	5,110	6,218	1,129	402
2,732,168	28,845	25,124	10,931	4,192
125,774,232	826,453	664,892	435,830	429,176
4,337,990	25,892	27,734	76,899	32,612
153,118	2,736	3,482	41,238	14,155
61,784	.....	5,242	966	1,330
80,053	830	2,721	936	741
3,581,726	38,270	50,461	3,908	6,309
302,303	2,041	4,705	901	983
.....	.....	.....	.....	325
268,298	4,418	5,111	1,794	3,320
64,533	4,211	14,426	1,550	3,181
241	.....	.....	.....	.....
1,044,264	77,587	101,808	49,245	45,424
2,272,602	112,335	266,431	395,693	583,465
5,278,116	1,376,927	1,062,086	748,034	743,029
218	.....	.....	630	96
.....	442	56,944	5,060	13,034
.....	150	.....	.....	.....
.....	589	723	1,184	797
30,851,549	174,748	184,947	31,045	11,127
2,604,393	15,168	16,234	6,921	3,761
52,340	4,047	13,262	3,702	4,741
.....	.....	391	205	1,215
17,717	530	1,275	323	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....	639
.....	.....	193	.....	800
635,646	14,469	10,768	2,924	6,229
1,458,879	14,562	7,600	14,489	38,180

Statistical view of the commerce of the

COUNTRIES.	COMMERCE.		
	Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	Total.
Teneriffe & other Canaries	23,215	1,000	24,215
Manilla & Philippine Isl.	64,375	1,000	65,375
Cuba	5,773,419	514,540	6,287,959
Porto Rico & oth. Sp. W. I.	810,411	54,143	864,554
Portugal	223,651	26,552	250,203
Madeira	101,524	15,574	117,098
Fayal and other Azores.	21,307	4,440	25,747
Cape de Verd Islands	23,275	1,604	24,879
Itally generally	2,173,745	159,833	2,333,578
Sicily	130,337	24,818	155,155
Sardinia	195,380	27,926	223,306
Tuscany	15,173	22,640	37,813
Pontifical States	.....	.....	.....
Ionian Islands	.....	.....	.....
Trieste & other Aust. ports	2,062,484	171,804	2,234,288
Turkey, Levant, &c.	207,358	79,981	287,339
Greece	.....	.....	.....
Hayti	1,738,413	260,520	1,998,933
Mexico	2,529,770	1,029,054	3,558,824
Central America	225,856	120,474	346,330
New Grenada	753,301	103,079	856,470
Venezuela	749,859	94,668	844,527
Bolivia	41,572	.....	41,572
Brazil	3,734,190	260,254	3,994,444
Orien. Repub. of Uruguay	296,088	12,358	308,446
Argentine Republic	618,855	262,611	881,466
Chili	2,157,320	169,117	2,326,437
Peru	657,316	40,261	697,577
Equador	.....	.....	.....
China	3,212,574	524,418	3,736,992
Asia generally	6,868	.....	6,868
Liberia	.....	.....	.....
Patagonia	.....	.....	.....
Africa generally	1,555,990	54,843	1,610,833
South America generally	153,451	27,060	180,511
South Seas	660,096	36,559	696,655
Pacific Ocean	.....	.....	.....
Atlantic Ocean	.....	.....	.....
Indian Ocean	11,816	.....	11,816
Sandwich Islands	.....	29,406	29,406
Northwest Coast	.....	.....	.....
West Indies generally	98,125	.....	98,125
Uncertain places	.....	.....	.....
Total	213,417,697	17,558,460	230,976,157

United States, &c.—(Continued.)

Value of imports.	NAVIGATION. American tonnage. Entered the U. S.	American tonnage. Cleared from the U. S.	Foreign tonnage. Entered the U. S.	Foreign tonnage. Cleared from the U. S.
84,021	1,641	1,046	2,318	1,235
2,465,083	16,697	20,598	4,541	2,003
18,585,755	455,700	365,392	37,362	22,730
2,800,936	47,838	30,815	15,844	9,429
411,155	3,314	5,476	5,973	8,696
77,598	1,942	3,707	369	348
10,892	1,691	1,777	.....	.....
41,053	901	2,181	1,153	.....
953,714	.....	.....	.....	.....
863,351	25,545	5,397	19,036	2,777
171,583	400	11,821	4,656	7,018
856,617	16,596	2,192	1,226	224
.....	.....	218	.....	.....
.....	149	149	.....	.....
528,567	2,660	11,735	2,702	9,244
727,516	7,592	4,365	558	.....
4,550	.....	.....	116	.....
1,985,624	33,262	31,369	10,402	6,124
2,167,985	23,046	30,810	25,255	15,804
590,937	68,302	80,737	2,543	3,172
553,528	199,599	205,602	5,095	3,840
2,613,780	17,142	12,001	4,795	1,789
.....	.....	277	225	.....
14,817,961	73,160	69,735	24,447	5,158
302,980	2,319	8,700	1,341	1,356
2,186,641	11,337	10,749	4,741	4,639
2,241,252	13,641	23,488	38,511	38,655
173,441	14,965	63,246	17,558	37,410
12,600	503	226	.....	249
10,573,710	65,899	66,041	26,965	24,808
32,721	.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	546	1,616	.....	.....
.....	582	514	416	.....
1,202,986	12,410	15,162	708	1,468
19,390	.....	434	.....	.....
796	3,998	3,143	696	1,132
.....	28,077	31,614	.....	5,819
24	3,762	7,788	.....	.....
.....	3,203	4,820	.....	686
16,575	18,111	20,260	3,914	4,118
.....	767	656	628	1,333
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	1,021	568	.....	.....
267,978,647	4,004,013	3,766,789	2,277,930	2,298,790

Statement of the commerce of each State and Territory,

STATES.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.			
	DOMESTIC PRODUCE.			FOREIGN
	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	In American vessels.
Maine	$1692412	$69517	$1761929	$273788
New Hampshire	250	876	1126	.....
Vermont	82376	.....	82376	11741
Massachusetts	11497123	5398181	16895304	1760970
Rhode Island	300228	2226	302454	7864
Connecticut	497769	.....	497769	11665
New York	46217717	19812638	66030355	8364727
New Jersey	.....	1354	1354	.....
Pennsylvania	4687269	1567960	6255229	206089
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	4782518	2985706	7768224	107056
District of Columbia	75456	.....	75456	.....
Virginia	2119435	1183126	3302561	4230
North Carolina	193870	120272	314142	.....
South Carolina	6459491	8940917	15400408	.....
Georgia	4953557	2418326	7371883	.....
Florida	1046921	651285	1698206	.....
Alabama	9916652	6870261	16786913	.....
Louisiana	47628019	20140705	67768724	459304
Mississippi	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee	.....	.....	.....	.....
Missouri	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	103807	54611	158418	.....
Kentucky	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan	224977	70832	295809	9512
Illinois	79139	.....	79139	.....
Texas	251040	318878	569918	446382
California	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	.....	.....	.....	.....
Minnesota	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	142810026	70607671	213417697	1668328

from July 1st, 1852, to June 30th, 1853.

PRODUCE.			VALUE OF EXPORTS.		
In ei·n ls	Total.	Total American & foreign produc	In American vessels.	In f reign vessels.	Tot.
$5075	$278858	$2049787	$1254039	$132550	$1386589
.....	.....	1126	24752	7856	32608
.....	11741	94117	184512	.....	184512
1299002	3059972	19955276	35910403	15457553	41367956
167	8031	310485	261719	104397	366116
.....	11665	509434	474297	71496	545793
3811208	12175935	78206290	132009768	46261231	178270999
.....	.....	1354	.....	3539	3539
66678	272767	6527996	10454563	8379847	18834410
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
731179	138235	7906459	5235659	1094419	6330078
.....	.....	75456	70086	1408	71494
.....	4230	3306791	255363	143641	399004
.....	.....	314142	125779	145459	271238
.....	.....	15400408	1199780	608737	1808517
.....	.....	7371883	275968	232293	508261
.....	.....	1698206	18132	47302	65434
.....	.....	16786913	297453	512109	809562
64630	523934	68292658	10856058	2774628	13630686
.....	.....	.....	5876	.....	5876
.....	.....	.....	256846	.....	256846
.....	.....	.....	859654	.....	859654
.....	.....	158418	750598	97162	847760
.....	.....	.....	175358	.....	175358
48364	57876	353685	207782	3448	211230
.....	.....	79139	7559	.....	7559
13381	459763	1029681	156144	125315	281459
.....	.....	.....	101312	.....	101312
.....	.....	.....	.....	85932	85932
.....	.....	.....	258253	.....	258253
.....	.....	.....	612	.....	612
5339684	17003007	230420704	191688325	76290322	267978647

TRADE BETWEEN ST. LOUIS & THE SOUTH: TENNESSEE RIVER, HICKMAN, KY., ARKANSAS RIVER, ETC.

Why is it that the enterprising merchants of St. Louis have never made a reasonable effort to extend their trade in a southern direction? This question has been frequently asked by the people and press of the south, but remains unanswered.

The trade of the Tennessee river embracing the fertile and wealthy region of North Alabama, is monopolized by Louisville and Cincinnati — chiefly by the former. This trade employs some half dozen boats, engaged chiefly in the transportation of commodities, which could, or ought to be obtained upon better terms at St. Louis than at either Louisville or Cincinnati. And, besides, the distance from the mouth of the Tennessee to St. Louis is shorter and the navigation much better than to the markets on the upper Ohio. The people of the valley of the Tennessee, and especially those of North Alabama, appreciate these facts; but commercial relations having been long established between that region and the cities on the Ohio, it requires that advances should be made by the merchants of St. Louis, and facilities of transportation offered, before a diversion can be made in this direction.

The trade of the Arkansas River is principally in the hands of Cincinnati and other cities on the Ohio: St. Louis has no boat either in the Tennessee or Arkansas trade. We respectfully ask the merchants and manufacturers of St. Louis, if they can look upon the map and observe the extensive ranges of these rivers without feeling a desire to participate in the commerce which their rich valleys afford?

But it seems that the merchants of St. Louis have not only neglected to avail themselves of the trade of the southern tributaries of the Mississippi, but have even overlooked the trade of important commercial points situated on the main river between this place and New Orleans where their boats pass daily.

We have upon former occasions, but without effect, endeavored to awaken the attention of the merchants and manufacturers of St. Louis to this subject: it has been suggested at the present time by the following article which we copy from the *Hickman Times:*

"Hickman and St. Louis Trade.—It has, for a long time, been a matter of some surprise to us that there is so little business intercourse between St. Louis and Hickman. While, for several years past, the Merchants and Grocers of Hickman have purchased annually, in Cincinnati, not less than half a million of dollars worth of goods and groceries, the purchases in St. Louis have not amounted in any one year, to twenty thousand dollars.

Why is this? Our facilities for transacting business with St. Louis, are far better than with Cincinnati; for several months in the year we are cut off almost entirely from Cincinnati, by low water, while we are never cut off from St. Louis. In high water even, the packets are usually from two to three days running from Cincinnati here. Twenty-four hours from St. Louis is a long time in high or low water. Full six weeks ago, we ordered printing paper from Cincinnati, we have not received it yet; from St. Louis, a week from the day we sent the order would have been an unnecessary delay. What then is it? It certainly cannot be, because, the merchants of Cincinnati are prepared to give better bargains than those of St. Louis; for there are merchants in the latter city doing business upon as much capital, and having as extensive a trade, as in Cincinnati; and the facilities for importing or manufacturing in St. Louis, are just as good if not better than in Cincinnati.

There have been a variety of causes, operating to effect this thing, one of the principal of which was the ruinous rates of discount charged upon Tennessee money, (our principal currency.)

The merchants of Cincinnati have been taking Kentucky money at par, and Tennessee money at one per cent. discount. The merchants of St. Louis, have at the same time been charging from one to one and a half per cent. discount upon Kentucky money, and two and a half on Tennessee money. This our merchants could not afford to pay, and this has been one of the chief causes of driving the trade to Cincinnati.

Another great reason is, that the people of St. Louis, although knowing that Hickman was the most important point between their city and Memphis, have made no efforts whatever, to secure the trade; they have not tried to make themselves known to the people here, either by advertising or otherwise, and the consequence is, that our people, when they wish to purchase an article in St. Louis, dont know who to send to for it. Now whether an annual trade of half a million of dollars is worth an effort, upon the part of St. Louis or not, we leave for them to decide, particularly, when that trade is increasing, and must continue to increase as rapidly as the trade of Hickman. We simply state facts, and they can and will govern themselves as they see best, after these facts are laid before them. We are desirous of seeing a trade built up between St. Louis and Hickman, and shall have more to say in this connexion hereafter."

Hickman is comparatively a new town; it commands the trade of a fertile district of considerable extent. Its enterprising citizens are engaged in constructing a railroad to connect with the Nashville and Northwestern Railroad, and also with the Mobile and Ohio Railroad; and the time is not far distant when it will be in connection with the great railroad systems west of the Mississippi. In the hands of an enterprising population, Hickman must become a very important city and it is the true policy of the people of St. Louis to establish commercial relations with it before its trade is monopolized by others.

JOURNAL OF PUBLIC IMPROVEMENT.

PACIFIC RAILROAD: CENTRAL ROUTE.

We are pleased to learn that the citizens of California are beginning to look in the right direction for a railroad route to connect them with the States east of the Rocky Mountains. Hitherto the weight of the California influence seems to have inclined in favor of the southern route; but the following proceedings of a convention held at Red Bluffs afford evidence that broader and more statesman-like views are beginning to prevail in that region.

[From the Placer Times and Transcript.]

PACIFIC RAILROAD CONVENTION AT RED BLUFFS.

Red Bluffs, June 3d, 1854.

Pursuant to public notice, published through the press, a Convention composed of delegates appointed by the people in the several counties, to give a proper expression to their opinions and wishes in relation to the route by which the Pacific Railroad should enter the State, met at 10 o'clock, A. M., on the above date. On motion of E. Garter, Hon. J. W. McCorkle was elected President, and Jas. McClatchey and G. E. Winter Secretaries.

The Convention closed its labors by the adoption of the following resolutions:

Whereas, The grand question of connecting the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, by means of a railroad across the continent, is now considered as a determined fact—sure to be accomplished—by the mighty energies of the American people; and Whereas, The selection of a route for this great scheme, which is national in its character, is still undetermined; and Whereas, Appropriation has already been made by Congress, and expended for the survey of routes whose practicability and adaptation to the commerce and wants of our growing country, are entirely problematical, and whose claims to favor at the hands of the whole nation, rest upon the sole basis of the moneyed and poli ical influence of the few, and

Whereas, We deem it a matter of supreme importance to the State of California, that a great highway, connecting us with our sister States, should embrace, among its main objects—first, the most practicable, second, the most direct, third, the most central route, in order to subserve, to the greatest possible extent, the purposes of the great mass of the American people, as well as of the government; and Whereas, A central route will actually traverse the greatest extent of inhabitable and fertile territory, both east and west of the Rocky Mountains, and would thereby afford the greatest facility to the settlement and protection of our now vast but wilderness domain:

Therefore, be it Resolved, That we endorse and recommend the selection of a central route, through the great South Pass, and in order to accomplish this great object, we ask the co-operation of Oregon, whose wants are identical with our own, as well as the co-operation of the great masses of the people of our own State, settled upon the

waters of the Pacific, in setting forth the advantages, the practicability, and the claims, of the route known as Nobles' Pass, in a proper and authentic manner, before Congress and the American people.

Resolved, That we hold the accomplishment of this great undertaking to be of pre-eminent importance, in preserving a good understanding, and thereby cementing the bonds which unite the sisterhood of States which compose our happy country; and that we will not oppose any particular route, after a fair and thorough survey shall have settled the question of selection.

Resolved, That we consider the project of constructing a Railroad from the Eastern to the Western boundaries of the Republic, a great National work, demanded as a means of defence in time of war, and in peace as a bond to unite the States, and practically important in all respects, to their common defence and general welfare.

Resolved, That the State of California and the Territories on the Pacific, to the north, as regards their present and prospective resources and population, will be incalculably more benefitted by a railroad through Noble's Pass, which would strike at the same time the head waters of the Sacramento river, flowing to the south, the Umpqua, Willamette, and Columbia, to the north, and following these great natural highways, sweep down the entire length of the three largest and richest valleys in America, to the Pacific ocean, terminating at the mouth of the Columbia at the north, and the Bay of San Francisco at the south.

Resolved, That in the opinion of this Convention, it is necessary at this time that the people of the United States and the General Government at Washington be fully aroused to the importance of the route by "Nobles' Pass," for the line of the great Atlantic and Pacific Railroad, and that an immediate organization of Committees in the several northern counties of this State be had, for the purpose of collecting information in regard to said route, and urging upon the government its immediate survey—and that they be requested to forward the same to Gen. Allen, the Chairman of the General Committee, for publication.

Resolved, That we hail with much satisfaction the information recently received, that Congress has appropriated money for the survey of the route through "Noble's Pass," and that although it be but tardy justice to the northern portion of the State, we are yet none the less thankful that Congress has made a beginning in this important work, and can but express our earnest hope that the proper Department will order the work to be immediately commenced; and we most solemnly protest against the location of the railroad before the engineers shall have had time to report on its merits.

Resolved, That we respectfully but firmly protest against the policy of granting any portion of the public domain within this State (except so much thereof as may be necessary for tracks, turnouts, and stations for the use of the road,) to any party or parties to aid them in the construction of such road, as such a policy would prevent a large portion of our agriculturists from receiving those benefits intended to be conferred upon them by our liberal pre-emption laws—would place the most of the soil of our State in the hands of non-resident capitalists, and permanently retard the growth and settlement of the country.

Resolved, That the delegation from each county represented in this convention, appoint one person in their several counties, to act in concert with the persons selected as committeemen of other counties whose duty shall be to raise by contribution money, and to cause to be surveyed, the route through "Noble's Pass," in case the survey of the same is not commenced by the General Government within three months from this date, and that the Chairman of said committee be instructed to correspond with the proper Government officers in relation to said survey.

Resolved, That by centrality of a route for a railroad, we mean central, not with regard to our own State, but central as regards the whole territory of the United States on the Pacific coast.

On motion, the resolutions were taken up *seriatim*, and each adopted unanimously, without debate—save the third, which was amended to read as it now appears, and the seventh, which Mr. Geiger moved to strike out, giving his reasons therefor. This motion was opposed by Messrs. Bryan, McClatchey, and Harrison, and the vote was taken and the motion declared not carried. The question then recurred upon the adoption of the seventh resolution, upon which the ayes and nays were called, and resulted in the affirmative, only two dissenting.

The preamble and resolutions were then adopted as a whole, with but one dissenting voice.

On motion of Maj. Bidwell it was then

Resolved, That the delegates from each of the counties represented select a member of the committee provided to be raised by the eighth resolution.

The Convention then took a recess of five minutes.

On the reassembling of the Convention the following gentlemen were named as those chosen for such committee:

Yuba, Gen. James Allen; Sacramento, Col. F. Forman; Shasta, Maj. B. P. Reading; Butte, Judge J. W. McCorkle; Colusi, Capt. D. Finch; Trinity, J. Comstock; Siskiyou, John D. Crosby.

On motion of Mr. McMurtry, Gen. James Allen, of Yuba, was selected as chairman of the committee.

On motion of Mr. Fairfax it was then

Resolved, That Maj. P. B. Reading, John Dreibelbis, W. Harrison, G. W. McMurtry, and Col. Toomes, are hereby appointed a committee, and requested to accompany the corps of engineers, when they make an exploring and surveying examination of "Noble's Pass."

On motion of Mr. Bryan, it was next

Resolved, That the different newspapers of the State be requested to publish the proceedings of this Convention.

The thanks of the Convention were tendered to A. A. Stout, Esq., for his kindness in furnishing a room for its sittings, and

The Convention adjourned *sine die*.

J. W. McCorkle, President.

James McClatchy, G. E. Winters, } Secretaries.

The influences which have been brought to bear upon the extreme northern and southern routes for a Pacific railroad have for a time diverted the public mind from the investigation of the true merits of a

central location. But we are persuaded that the report of the engineer will put an end to the northern project, and force the northern influence upon the central line. In support of the opinion that the northern route will be abandoned we quote from the Nebraska Palladium what Col. Lander is reported to have said in his public address at Council Bluffs. Col. Lander went out with Gov. Stevens on the northern route, and re turned up the valley of the Columbia. He says:

"I cannot think there are ten men in Oregon, who believe that the line adopted for the great national thoroughfare will be that surveyed during the last season, under the direction of Gov. Stevens, generally termed the Northern Route, and passing from St. Paul, Minnesota, north of the Missouri river, and along the British frontier, to Puget's Sound. Having examined that line in my professional capacity, I am fully prepared to speak of its character. In the vicinity of the Mississippi river it possesses advantages over all other Pacific routes by traversing a rich timber country; regarding the scarcity of timber in the interior, this is a desideratum and gives a high character to the line. Beyond this advantage, the Northern line, (which to the first range of mountains is of so favorable a character, as to justify any encomium,) does not compare as a Railroad route with that I have recently examined. I believe the route up the Platte river valley to be peculiarly favorable for cheap construction. From a point thirty miles west of the Missouri river, a single plane of surface extends for 500 miles without a break or declivity. The soil is of such a character, that by skirting the Sand Bluffs on the north side of the river, all necessity for ballasting or dressing the road bed is avoided. Brooks of clear water, having their sources in these bluffs, and at such an elevation above the level proposed for the Rail, as to afford every facility for the use of locomotives.

I have no doubt that the perfect drainage, afforded by a soil of such a character would allow the use of the Rail for long distances, without grading. I believe that nowhere on the American Continent, occur such facilities for cheap and speedy construction for the immediate completion of a road, or at least the earliest possible opening of a line of transportation to the interior. This is a fact of the greatest importance. One of the chief obstacles to the construction of a Railroad within a reasonable period of time will be the difficulty of transporting supplies and the necessary appliances for grading, to the several mountain sections of the interior. The line up the Platte offers every advantage for overcoming this obstacle by affording such facilities for an immediate use of the Rail in a preliminary track. I have already stated that the citizens of Washington and Oregon Territories have manifested a lively interest in the Pacific Railway question—that they believe the adoption of the Platte Valley route will exert an important influence upon the future, and that they have no hopes of the con-

struction of an extreme northern line. I left Olimpea, or Puget's Sound, in March carrying (by unanimous vote,) a full indorsement of both branches of the Legislature of Washington. I have been deeply interested in the success of this reconnoisance, and am abundantly repaid for some months of severe labor by this full and successful result. I have ascertained the fact, that an excellent Railroad line exists between the waters of Missouri river and Puget's Sound; also that a very practicable, cheap, and favorable line exists between Salt Lake City and Puget's Sound, and am able to fully demonstrate the latter proposition by reliable data."

ARKANSAS MIDLAND RAILROAD.

The friends of this enterprise performed the ceremony of breaking ground as the commencement of the work at Helena, on the 4th instant.

The *Helena Star* of the 5th says, "our citizens, full of national and State pride, turned out, without distinction of age or sex, to participate in the festivities of the occasion." A public address was delivered by James T. Crary, Esq., orator of the day, and speeches were made by several other gentlemen in response to the call of the Assembly. "After dinner was served up, Major Richard Davidson, surrounded by the enthusiastic assembly, took his spade and threw up the first sod on our railroad. This pleasing duty could not have been assigned to one more worthy. The great work was commenced with the utmost enthusiasm—long, loud and continued applause cheered and animated this interesting scene.

We sincerely hope that the enthusiasm manifested upon this interesting occasion will not abate until the road is completed. Let the "Midland Road" be built only to the city of Little Rock, and it will ensure the construction of other roads terminating at Helena, which will place it in connection with the great systems of public improvements east and west of the Mississippi.

Though we regard a direct connection with Memphis, by railroad, as necessary to complete the Missouri system of public improvement, we are still persuaded that the true route from St. Louis to New Orleans is that which crosses the Mississippi at Helena, and that, in obedience to the laws of commerce, this line must, sooner or later, be constructed.

MISSISSIPPI, OUACHITA AND RED RIVER RAILROAD.

This road was inaugurated at Camden, on the 4th instant, with the usual ceremonies—public addresses, breaking ground, feasting, &c. Though local in its character, this work will be one of immense benefit to Western Arkansas and Eastern Texas, and we trust its friends will find the means necessary to its speedy accomplishment.

JOURNAL OF MANUFACTURES AND MINING.

IMPORTANT INVENTION FOR ROLLING RAILROAD BARS.

Mr. Wm. Harris, late of the Rolling Mill firm of Harris, Burnish & Co., of this place, has just completed an invention for the mannfacture of Railroad Iron, which in the opinion of our ablest mechanics is likely to give a fresh impetus to the Iron Manufacture, and to effect corresponding changes throughout the entire trade. It consists in a new method of arranging the rolls, and cannot fail wherever understood, to entirely supplant the old process. Mr. H. is a practical iron manufacturer, and has been actively engaged in the business for the greater part of his life. He is now about 34 years of age. His attention has for many years been given to an improvement of this kind, manifestly so much needed.

By the old (present) plan, each pair of rolls has nine separate grooves, through which the heated mass from the furnace is successively passed, until it is delivered from the last in the shape of a railroad bar. Much manual labor is required; and even with the most skilful and expeditious workmen, the metal has time to cool very considerably before it is finished, thereby becoming less malleable, and causing a dangerous strain upon the machinery. The breaking of a Roll in such a mill, it is well known, is but a common occurrence.

Now, instead of the one set of Rolls, containing the nine grooves; by the *new* process, there are nine separate pairs of Rolls, each having but one groove—arranged in one continuous line, with close ducts or boxes between; so that the "pile" (the hot ball of metal) is fed in at one end, and comes out at the other a railroad bar! The principal advantages claimed are—economy of time, and saving of manual labor—highly important considerations, as all iron manufactures well knew.

Let us compare (and our data throughout, it may be proper to remark, are not mere guesses, but have been ascertained by accurate calculations): By the old process, a bar of 21 feet, the usual length, is manufactured in 2½ minutes; by the new, in the same time, one of

100 feet could be run out, if the "pile" could be prepared; or with the speed proposed for the new machinery, a bar 30 feet long may be finished from the "pile" in 30 seconds!

By the old plan, 10 men and boys are ordinarily employed in the rolling process alone—by the new, but one; and his business would be solely that of superintendence — there would be no manual labor for him. For instance, the Heater brings his "pile"—it is put in at one end of the continuous line of Rolls, and requires no farther manipulation till it is delivered, a railroad bar at the other.

Another prime advantage claimed for the new process is the manufacture of the "Red short" iron into railroad bars. This species of iron, it is well known to manufactnrers, possesses a peculiar brittleness when hot, that renders it difficult if not impossible, to work by the old process, though remarkably tough when cold—having a long fibre and making the best of railroad iron. On the new plan, the time occupied in the manufacture of a bar is so short, that the metal can easily be retained at a workable temperature during the entire process. This will undoubtedly tend greatly to improve the general character of railroad iron; as the "cold short," now mostly employed for that purpose (because it is most easily worked,) becomes exceedingly brittle when cold, being in very many cases not much better in that respect, than common pig metal.

The new machinery used is of the simplest mechanical construction, and not at all likely to break or get out of order. It consists mainly of a horizontal shaft, to which are attached, by plain level gearing, the several Rolls, some revolving vertically and others laterally (in order to compress the metal on all sides.) The Rolls are set apart at distances corresponding with the successively increased lengths of the "pile," in its passage through them—the first four or five being comparatively close together. Hence the entire length of the line of Rolls, for manufacturing bars, say 21 to 30 feet long, would not exceed 100 feet. No more power is required than in the old process, as the metal is acted upon but by one Roll at a time; and not near so much toward the finishing, as in the old process, as the metal has by that time cooled very much and, of course, is less malleable; while by the new, the whole operation is performed so speedily, that the temperature of the metal is very little reduced.

A *Caveat* was filed at Washington some time last winter, and application for a patent for the invention is now pending in the names of Messrs. Harris & Geo. Bright. A model may be seen at the hardware store of the latter in this place.

As to the cost of a mill, constructed with the new Rolling machinery, a liberal estimate places it at about 15 to 20 per cent. more than the present expenditure; but the new Rolling apparatus *alone* will not cost more than 10 per cent. over the price of the present Rolls. The other increased expense results from the additional number of improved capacity of the furnaces, necessary to supply the new Rolling machinery; and of course is to be considered in connection with the proportional increase of manufacture. This will become plain by a simple calculation: A mill constructed on the old plan can work up about 70 tons of metal in 24 hours; that is, in the largest establish-

ments, with the best of machinery and the most experienced workmen. But, with the new Rolling gear, 120 tons can be manufactured in 12 hours; or nearly four times as much—yet the yield in both cases being limited by the rolling power. The principal difference, so far as cost is concerned, after the new Rolling apparatus is introduced, is in the additional number of furnaces required to keep it going.

There are other incidental advantages connected with this invention that we have not attempted to enumerate — we may have occasion to allude to it hereafter. The model has been examined by a great many persons, and the actual process of manufacture performed with small bars of cold lead. The general opinion expressed is admiration and implicit confidence in its success. We commend it specially to the notice of Iron Manufacturers throughout the country.—(*Pottsville Journal.*

ANGEL CHILD.

"Of such is the Kingdom of Heaven."

The death of a child awakens an emotion of grief which is concentrated in the heart of its parents, but which is seldom deeply diffused throughout the circle of even their intimate friends, much less through the mass of society. The world does not mourn for those who die young, yet it is often said that they are the ones "whom the gods love," that "of such is the Kingdom of Heaven."

Why should not the death of a child awaken a deeper feeling? Why should the world be indifferent to those whom the gods love? Why should mankind pay so little respect to the emblems of the Kingdom of Heaven?

Hallowed are the hours of childhood; hallowed its associations, its innocence, its singleness of heart, its love, its joy, its Angel-guarded existence. God grant that its freshness of feeling, like the waving of Angel-wings beside the well of everlasting life, may be prolonged in harmony with the experience of years—that "Arcadia may be always in man, and man always in Arcadia."*

These reflections were suggested on the perusal of the following beautiful lines, full of tones of tenderness, coming from a heart overflowing with that freshness of feeling which indicates the Arcadian life of truth and poetry enjoyed by the fair authoress.

With naive and charming modesty she says:

* Jean Paul.

"These simple lines came impromptu from my heart upon learning the death of little Georgie. That they are very imperfect I am aware, but they express so *truthfully my feelings*, I cannot refrain from offering them to his dear afflicted mother."

It is a tribute of consolation to the bereaved mother, wife of Dr. P——, of St. Louis, on the death of their only child.

Dear little babe! thy while on earth
Was like a flower of noon-day birth,
Too delicate and sweetly fair
To live, tho' nursed with tenderest care.

The purity and winning grace
And smile which lit thy fair young face,
Seemed but a loan from angel-hand,
Best fitted for the "spirit land."

We should not wish thee back, sweet child,
Tho' oft thy loveliness beguiled
Our thoughts from care, and toil, and strife,
And pointed to eternal Life.

'Twere sin to call thee from that choir,
Where now thou tun'st an Angel's Lyre,
'Tho' ne'er will fall on mother's ear,
Again the tones she joyed to hear.

Then rest thee, little one, above,
Where all is one bright scene of love;
The same High Power which gave thee birth,
Took thee, in wisdom, back from earth.

LEXINGTON, KY., 1854. LETTIE.

MEMORY OF FRIENDS.

BY HARRY.

A varied scene, with lakes and brooks,
Is pleasant to the eye;
And clouds and birds look light and gay,
While flying through the sky—
A garden filled with flowers and shrubs,
To life a pleasure lends,
But pleasanter than tongue can tell
Is the Memory of Friends.

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ARTICLE I.

The New Territories: Nebraska and Kansas.

Additions to the public domain, and the settlement and cultivation of new territories, are events which necessarily affect the industrial pursuits and social relations of the community whose limits are thus extended. Under institutions like ours where every individual may adopt the vocation most congenial to their nature, and where local interests constitute an important element of public policy, the settlement of new territories and the admission of new States into the Union afford legitimate and interesting subjects for the study of the political economist and statesman.

In discussing the subject before us, we shall omit to notice that provision in the act of Congress which authorizes the institution of slavery in these territories, and confine our views chiefly to the economical and social effects arising from the settlement of so large a district of country, embracing as it does the centre of the continent.

The first American settlements established west of the Alleghanies were made in the central region; but subsequently the stream of emigration from the Atlantic slope separated, and formed two principal currents: the one bearing south, the other north, diverging further from the center as they proceeded towards the west. This peculiarity in the progress of emigration from east to west is generally attributed, we believe, to the institution of slavery in the Southern States: but, if in connection with the enterprising and money-loving character of the American people, we consider the nature of the country and its productions from the Gulf of Mexico to the Northern Lakes, we shall perceive that these diverging currents owe their origin less to social than to national causes.

The Southern States, and the region bordering on the Northern Lakes, are favorable to the growth of certain commercial staples, and until recently their facilities of transportation eastward were much better than those enjoyed by the central region. These were inducements not likely to be overlooked by an intelligent and enterprising people. The culture of tobacco and hemp, the principal commercial staples of the central region, could not be rapidly increased without depressing the price below the cost of production, while the cereals produced in the interior, remote from navigation, would not bear transportation to market.

Hence, it is evident that the course of emigration has been governed chiefly by considerations of economy and calculations of profit on labor. The owners of slave labor emigrating from the Atlantic States moved within the range of the cotton growing region, while the more substantial, and perhaps better judging farmers of the free States settled along the shores of the Northern Lakes.

So decided and well defined has been this movement, that its effects are observable at no great distance below the Falls of the Ohio: Western Kentucky, Southern Illinois, Missouri and Arkansas having remained comparatively stationary in the development of their resources, while the northern and southern regions, and more especially the former, have increased in population, commerce and wealth to a degree unequalled perhaps in the history of man.

Having traced the currents of emigration, as hitherto observed, to physical causes, we are gratified to perceive that those causes are undergoing important modifications, and that not only the physical impediments to emigration have, in a good measure, been overcome, but the commercial facilities of the central region are now nearly equal, all things considered, to those enjoyed by either the north or the south. Within another year we may reasonably expect that at least three lines of railway will be completed from the Atlantic to the Mississippi river, affording ample facilities to emigration and commerce. After reaching the Mississippi, emigration, still governed in its course by physical causes, will, instead of diverging north and south, as in times past, tend to the center.

The hydrographic systems and physical conformation of that part of the continent lying between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, all point with unerring certainty to such a result.

The valleys of the Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, Yellow Stone, the upper Arkansas and the upper Del Norte, will from this time forth attract emigration and commerce to the central region west of the Mississippi, by causes not less certain in their operation than the law of gravitation. Already, even before the Indians have left their hunting grounds, or the surveyors have stretched a chain upon the soil, many have entered those valleys, others are on their way, and thousands are preparing to remove without seeing the land.

This extraordinary movement is attributed in part to that provision in the organic law of these territories, which recognizes the institution of slavery; but we are persuaded that it may be traced to a far deeper source—the instincts of the American people.

Individuals actuated by political and religious fanaticism may have been instrumental in organizing emigrating companies in the eastern States; but in this they have only anticipated a movement which would have taken place sooner or later without their assistance. All that was necessary to ensure the rapid settlement of these territories was the removal of the Indian tribes. The spirit of emigration is a natural and active element in the character of the race to which we belong; and the fertile region bordering on the shores of the northern lakes having become so much occupied as to have lost its attractions as a new country, nothing could be more natural or more consistent with the character of our people residing north of the cotton growing region, than to emigrate to the valleys of the Kansas and Nebraska.

If these views touching the course of emigration be correct, it is manifest that we are about to onter upon a new era in the commercial and social history of this country.

The currents of commerce rising in the valleys and plains on the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains and flowing eastwardly, will be checked in their course by the Mississippi, and there meeting with commercial currents flowing north and south, the shores of this river, in a commercial point of view, will be to the region west of it, what the shores of the Atlantic were in former times to the whole country. Hither the productions of the west—the great central region—will, necessarily, come to be exchanged for the commercial staples and fruits of the south, and direct importations of foreign merchandize following as a natural consequence, a cen-

tral commercial system, which we have so long labored to introduce, will be established by the operation of natural laws.

This new order of things in the west presents the States of Missouri and Iowa in a new aspect, and gives them a degree of importance among the States of the Union which those who have most highly appreciated their location and natural resources have scarcely hoped for, or even imagined.

One can hardly imagine an event more favorable to the prosperity of Missouri than the *settlement of these territories*. Her agriculture, commerce, manufactures, mining and public improvements, will all be benefitted by it. The demand for breadstuffs, provisions and stock to supply the new settlements will ensure renumerating prices for all her agricultural productions; while the trade of her commercial emporium will increase in volume with a rapidity unexampled even in the history of western cities.

The center of a great commercial system having been established, manufactures in all their varied forms will grow up in and around it as a natural and certain consequence. For a great commercial center and its vicinity affords facilities, and includes the conditions necessary to ensure success to many branches of manufactures, which cannot exist elsewhere in an equal degree. It is not proximity to the consumer which the manufacturer requires so much as immediate contact with the merchant, and his agency in furnishing raw material, and distributing the fabrics. Doubtless, some one or more of the conditions favorable for manufacturing many commodities may be found to exist at points remote from commercial cities; but then others necessary to ensure success upon a large scale are wanting, and it is on this account that manufacturing in rural districts remote from great cities has so rarely succeeded in this country.

One of the principal advantages which we anticipate from the settlement of Nebraska and Kansas is the powerful impulse which it is calculated to impart to the growth of manufactures in St. Louis. While those territories are filling up with an industrious and enterprising population, they must look to the east for almost every commodity necessary to their convenience and comfort except such as are derived from agriculture and the natural pasturage of the plains. No other place in the west, nor indeed in the United States, combines as many of the conditions required for the suc-

cessful manufacture of such commodities as are needed in a new country, as does St. Louis; and these conditions will continue to be enlarged and improved, as the population of the new territories shall increase.

The settlement of these territories will create a large demand for iron in all its forms; and while it will be in the power of Missouri to supply the raw material, the manufactures of St. Louis should aim to produce the manufactured articles in quantity sufficient to keep pace with the increasing wants of the country. Indeed, when we take a view of the mineral deposites, as far as they are known, west of the Mississippi, it is manifest that the entire central region west of the river must depend, in a great measure, upon Missouri for its supply of iron.

These are facts that sagacious men will soon begin to investigate; and it will then require no argument on our part to convince them of the advantages of mining and manufacturing in Missouri.

The settlement of these territories will also greatly enhance the value of our works of public improvement.

It is true that all our railroads do not lead in that direction; but they will all be benefitted by a more rapid development of the resources of the State.

The event is especially propitious to the future prospects of the line of railway—the Pacific—connecting St. Louis with the eastern boundary of Kansas, near the Missouri river. This may now be justly regarded as among the best public enterprises west of the Alleghanies; and if the cost of the work should not too far exceed the Engineer's estimates, the stock must be sought for in time as a desirable object of investment.

The great demand created for this road by the opening of the Kansas valley to settlement should operate as a powerful argument to the directory and to the people along its line, to increase their exertions to complete the work; and we sincerely hope, that the citizens of the western counties through which the road passes, will, in view of the benefits to be derived from its immediate completion, come up to the work with a resolution that will ensure its accomplishment in two years at furthest from the present date.

But passing from local to broader and more national views of this subject, we still find cause of gratification in the settlement of these extensive territories.

They embrace a region most admirably adapted to the pursuits of the herdsman, and more especially to the production of sheep. The American people are not much addicted to the occupation of herdsmen, and it may be some years before this branch of industry attains to much importance. But when a residence on the plains shall be made safe from Indian depredations, if Americans do not possess them as pastures and sheep walks, emigrants from other lands will, and the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains will add another great staple to the national wealth.

But more and better still than all, we shall have a pastoral population in the center and heart of the Union, whose bold independence and incorruptable patriotism will constitute one of the strongest and most durable pillars of our institutions.

It requires no effort of the imagination to perceive that the settlement of these territories will produce important changes in the political aspects of the nation. The machinery which has been used with so much effect by political aspirants and demagogues, will, in a great measure, be rendered powerless. The northern and southern parties which to the detriment of the center have been so long struggling for political ascendency, are destined ere long to lose their potency in the councils of the nation, and yield to sentiments more liberal and a policy more national—emanating from the center.

Heretofore the central region has had no policy of its own, and its weight in the national councils is still regarded by the north and the south as a prize to be won and enjoyed by the party which can play the deepest game to secure it. It is a matter of little consequence to the west which wins; for her interests are generally overlooked and often positively sacrificed by the successful party. It is a pleasing reflection that the time is rapidly approaching when a new order of things will be established; when the people of the great central region attracted thither by natural laws and actuated by a truly national sentiment, shall rise above the sectional strifes which have so long vexed the nation and disturbed the harmony of its constituents.

The people occupying the central region, when its resources shall have been developed, can have no interests antagonistic to those of either the northern or southern sections of the Union, and from the nature of things their policy must be conservative, and tend to the perpetuation of our happy institutions.

Believing that perhaps every reader of the Western Journal and Civilian will be pleased to have a copy of the law organizing these Territories in a permanent form, we give below a copy of the "*Act to organize the Territory of Nebraska.*" The provisions of the law organizing the *Territory of Kansas* are in all respects similar to those contained in the following copy, except as to boundary. Kansas is bounded north by Nebraska, east by Missouri, south by the parallel of 37° north latitude, and west by New Mexico. The seat of government for Kansas is located temporarily at Fort Leavenworth.

AN ACT TO ORGANIZE THE TERRITORY OF NEBRASKA.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled. That all that part of the territory of the United States included within the following limits, except such portions thereof as are hereinafter expressly exempted from the operations of this act, to wit: Beginning at a point in the Missouri river where the fortieth parallel of north latitude crosses the same; thence west on said parallel to the east boundary of the Territory of Utah, on the summit of the Rocky Mountains, thence on said summit northward to the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude, thence east on said parallel to the western boundary of the Territory of Minnesota; thence southward on said boundary to the Missouri river; thence down the main channel of said river to the place of beginning, be and the same is hereby created into a temporary government, by the name of the Territory of Nebreska; and, when admitted as a State, or States, the said Territory, or any portion of the same, shall be received into the Union with or without slavery, as their constitution may prescribe at the time of their admission: Provided, That nothtng in this act contained shall be construed to inhibit the Government of the United States from dividing said Territory into two or more Territories, in such manner and at such times as Congress shall deem convenient and proper, or from attaching any portion of said Territory to any other Stete or Territory in the United States: Provided further, That nothing in this act contained shall be construed to impair the rights of persons or property now pertaining to the Indians in said Territory, so long as such rights shall remain unextinguished by treaty between the United States and such Indians, or to include any territory which, by treaty with any Indian tribe, is not without the consent of said tribe, to be included within the territorial limits or jurisdiction of any State or Territory; but all such territory shall be excepted out of the boundaries, and constitute no part of the Territory of Nebraska, until said tribe shall signify their assent to the President of the United States to be included within the said Territory of Nebraska, or to affect the authority of the Government of the U. S. to make any regulations respecting such Indians, their lands, property, or other rights, by treaty, law, or otherwise, which it would have

been competent to the Government to make if this act had never passed.

Sec. 2. And be it further enacted, That the executive power and authority in and over said Territory of Nebraska shall be vested in a Governor, who shall hold his office for four years, and until his successor shall be appointed and qualified, unless sooner removed by the President of the U. S. The Governor shall reside within said Territory and shall be Commander-in-Chief of the militia thereof. He may grant pardons and respites for offences against the laws of said Territory and reprieves for offenses against the laws of the U. S. until the decision of the President can be made known thereon ; he shall commission all officers who shall be appointed to office under the laws of the said Territory, and shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed.

Sec. 3. And be it further enacted, That there shall be a Secretary of said Territory who shall reside therein and hold his office for five years, unless sooner removed by the President of the U. S., he shall record and preserve all the laws and proceedings of the Legislative Assembly hereinafter constituted, and all the acts and proceedings of the Governor in his executive department; he shall transmit one copy of the laws and journals of the Legislative Assembly within thirty days after the end of each session, and one copy of the executive proceedings and official correspondence semi-annually, on the first days of January and July in each year, to the President of the U. S., and two copies of the laws to the President of the Senate and to the Speaker of the House of Representatives, to be deposited in the libraries of Congress; and in case of the death, removal, resignation or absence of the Governor from the Territory, the Secretary shall be and is hereby authorized and required to execute and perform all the powers and duties of the Governor during such vacancy or absence, or until another Governor shall be duly appointed and qualified to fill such vacancy

Sec. 4. And be it further enacted, That the legislative power and authority of said Territory shall be vested in the Governor and a Legislative Assembly. The Legislative Assembly shall consist of a Council and a House of Representatives. The Council shall consist of thirteen members, having the qualifications of voters. as hereinafter prescribed, whose term of service shall continue two years. The House of Representatives shall, at its first session, consist of twenty-six members, possessing the same qualifications as prescribed for members of the Council, and whose term of service shall continue for one year. The number of representatives may be increased by the Legislative Assembly from time to time, in proportion to the increase of qualified voters : Provided, That the whole number shall never exceed thirty-nine. An apportionment shall be made, as nearly equal as practicable, among the several counties or districts, for the election of the Council and Representatives, giving to each section of the Territory representation in the ratio of its qualified voters as nearly as may be. And the members of the Council and of the House of Representatives shall reside in, and be inhabitants of the district, or county, or counties, for which they may be elected, respectively. Previous to the first election the Governor shall cause a census, or enumeration of the inhabit-

ants and qualified voters of the several counties and districts of the Territory to be taken by such persons and in such mode as the Governor shall designate and appoint; and the persons so appointed shall receive a reasonable compensation therefor. And the first election shall be held at such time and places, and be conducted in such manner, both as to persons who shall superintend such election and the returns thereof, as the Governor shall appoint and direct; and he shall at the same time declare the number of members of the Council and House of Representatives to which each of the counties or districts shall be entitled under this act. The person having the highest number of legal votes in each of said Council districts for members of the Council shall de declared by the Governor to be duly elected to the Council, and the persons having the highest number of legal votes for the House of Representatives shall be declared by the Governor to be duly elected members of said House: Provided, That in case two or more persons voted for shall have an equal number of votes, and in case a vacancy shall otherwise occur in either branch of the Legislative Assembly, the Governor shall order a new election; and the persons thus elected to the Legislative Assembly shall meet at such place and on such day as the Governor shall appoint; but thereafter the time, place and manner of holding and conducting all elections by the people, and the apportioning of the representation in the several counties or districts to the Council and House of Representatives, according to the number of qualified voters, shall be prescribed by law, as well as the day of commencement of the regular sessions of the Legislative Assembly: Provided, That no session in any one year shall exceed the term of forty days, except the first session, which may continue sixty days.

Sec. 5. And be it further enacted, That every free white male inhabitant above the age of twenty-one years who shall be an actual resident of said Territory, and shall possess the qualifications hereinafter prescribed, shall be entitled to vote at the first election, and shall be eligible to any office within the said Territory; but the qualifications of voters and of holding office at all subsequent elections shall be such as shall be prescribed by the Legislative Assembly: Provided, That the right of suffrage and of holding office shall be exercised only by citizens of the U. S. and those who shall have declared on oath their intention to become such, and shall have taken an oath to support the Constitution of the U. S. and the provisions of this act: And provided further, That no officer, soldier, seaman, or marine or other person in the army or navy of the U. S., or attached to troops in the service of the U. S., shall be allowed to vote or hold office in said Territory by reason of being on service therein.

Sec. 6. And be it further enacted, That the legislative power of the Territory shall extend to all rightful subjects of legislation consistent with the Constitution of the U. S. and the provisions of this act, but no law shall be passed interfering with the primary disposal of the soil; no tax shall be imposed upon the property of the U. S.; nor shall the lands or other property of non-residents be taxed higher than the lands or other property of residents. Every bill which shall have passed the Council and House of Representatives of the said Territory shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the Governor o

the Territory; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it with his objections to the House in which it originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journals, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, to be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the Governor within three days [Sundays excepted,] after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Assembly, by adjournment, prevents its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Sec. 7. And be it further enacted, That all Township, District and County officers, not herein otherwise provided for, shall be appointed or elected, as the case may be, in such manner as shall be provided by the Governor and Legislative Assembly of the Territory of Nebraska. The Governor shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council, appoint all officers not herein otherwise provided for, and in the first instance the Governor alone may appoint all said officers, who shall hold their offices until the end of the first session of the Legislative Assembly, and shall lay off the necessary districts for members of the Council, House of Representatives, and all other officers.

Sec. 8. And be it further enacted, That no member of the Legislative Assembly shall hold, or be appointed to, any office which shall have been created, or the salary or emoluments of which shall have been increased while he was a member, during the term for which he was elected, and for one year after the expiration of such term; but this restriction shall not be applicable to members of the first Legislative Assembly; and no person holding a commission or appointment under the U. S., except postmasters, shall be a member of the Legislative Assembly, or hold any office under the Government of said Territory.

Sec. 9. And be it further enacted, That the judicial power of said Territory shall be vested in a Supreme Court, District Courts, Probate Courts, and in Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court shall consist of a Chief Justice and two Associate Justices, any two of whom shall constitute a quorum, and who shall hold a term at the seat of Government of said Territory annually, and they shall hold their offices during the period of four years, and until their successors shall be appointed and qualified. The said Territory shall be divided into three judicial districts and a District Court shall be held in each of said districts by one of the justices of the Supreme Court, at such times and places as may be prescribed by law; and the said judges shall, after their appointments, respectively, reside in the districts which shall be assigned them. The jurisdiction of the several courts herein provided for, both appellative and original, and that of the Probate Courts and of Justices of the Peace, shall be as limited by law: Provided, that Justices of the Peace shall not have jurisdiction of any matter in controversy when the title or boundaries of land may be in

dispute, or where the debt or sum claimed shall exceed one hundred dollars; and the said Supreme and District Courts, respectively, shall possess chancery as well as common law jurisdiction. Each District Court, or the judge thereof, shall appoint its clerk, who shall also be register in chancery, and shall keep his office at the place where the court may be held. Writs of error, bills of exception, and appeals shall be allowed in all cases from the final decisions of said District courts to the Supreme Court, under such regulations as may be prescribed by law; but in no case removed to the Supreme Court shall trial by jury be allowed in said court. The Supreme Court, or the justices thereof, shall appoint its own clerk, and every clerk shall hold his office at ihe pleasure of the court for which he shall have been appointed. Writs of error and appeals from the final decisions of said Supreme Court shall be allowed, and may be taken to the Supreme Court of the U. S., in the same manner and under the same regulations as from the circuit courts of the U. S., where the value of the property or the amount in controversy, to be ascertained by the oath or affirmaation of either party, or other competent witnesses, shall exceed one thousand dollars; except only that in all cases involving title to slaves the said writs of error or appeals shall be allowed and decided by the said Supreme Court, without regard to the value of the matter, property, or title in controversy; and except also that writ of error or appeal shall also be allowed to the Supreme Court of the U. S. from the decision of the said supreme court created by this act, or of any judge thereof, or of the District Courts created by this act, or of any judge thereof, upon any writ of habeas corpus, involving the question of personal freedom: Provided, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to apply to or affect the provisions to the "act respecting fugitives from justice and persons escaping from the service of their masters," approved February 12th, 1793, and the "act to amend and supplementary to the aforesaid act," approved September, 1850; and each of the said District Courts shall have and exercise the same jurisdiction in all cases arising under the Constitution and laws of the U. S., as is vested in the District and Circuit Courts of the U. S., and the said Supreme and District Courts of the said Territory and the respective judges thereof, shall and may grant writs of habeas corpus in all cases in which the same are granted by the judges of the U. S. in the District of Columbia; and the first six days of every term of said courts, or so much thereof as shall be necessary, shall be appropriated to the trial of causes arising under the said Constitution and laws, and writs of error and appeal in all such cases shall be made to the Supreme Court of said Territory, the same as in other cases. The said clerk shall receive in all such cases the same fees which the clerks of the District Courts of Utah Territory now receive for similar services.

Sec. 10. And be it further enacted, That the provisions of an act entitled, "An act respecting fugitives from justice, and persons escaping from the service of their masters," approved February 12, 1793, and the provisions of the act entitled "An act to amend and supplementary to the aforesaid act," approved September 18, 1850, be and the same are hereby declared to extend to and be in full force within the limits of said Territory of Nebraska.

Sec. 11. And be it further enacted, That there shall be appointed

an Attorney for said Territory, who shall continue in office for four years, and until his successor shall be appointed and qualified, unless sooner removed by the President, and who shall receive the same fees and salary as the Attorney of the U. S. for the present Territory of Utah. There shall also be a Marshal for the Territory appointed who shall hold his office for four years and until his successor shall be appointed and qualified, unless sooner removed by the President, and who shall execute all processes issuing from the said courts when exercising their jurisdiction as Circuit and District Courts of the U. S.; he shall perform the duties, be subject to the same regulation and penalties, and be entitled to the same fees as the Marshal of the District Court of the U. S. for the present Territory of Utah, and shall in addition be paid two hundred dollars as a compensation for extra services.

Sec. 12. And be it further enacted, That the Governor, Secretary, Chief Justice, and Associate Justice, Attorney, and Marshal shall be nominated, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appointed by the President of the U. S. The Governor and Secretary to be appointed as aforesaid shall, before they act as such, respectively make an oath or affirmation before the District Judge or some Justice of the Peace in the limits of said Territory, duly authorized to administer oaths and affirmations by the laws now in force therein, or before the Chief Justice or some Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the U. S., to support the Constitution of the U. S., and faithfully discharge the duties of their respective offices, which said oaths, when so taken, shall be certified by the person by whom the same shall have been taken; and such certificates shall be received and recorded by the said Secretary among the executive proceedings; and the Chief Justice and Associate Justices, and all other civil officers in said Territory, before they act as such, shall take a like oath or affirmation before the said Governor or Secretary, or some Judge or Justice of the Peace of the Territory who may be duly commissioned and qualified, which said oath or affirmation shall be certified and transmitted by the person taking the same to the Secretary, to be by him recorded as aforesaid; and, afterwards, the like oath or affirmation shall be taken, certified and recorded, in such manner and form as may be prescribed by law. The Governor shall receive an annual salary of two thousand five hundred dollars. The Chief Justice and Associate Justices shall each receive an annual salary of two thousand dollars. The Secretary shall receive an annual salary of two thousand dollars. The said salaries shall be paid quarter-yearly, from the date of the respective appointments, at the Treasury of the U. S.; but no such payment shall be made until said officers shall have entered upon the duties of their respective appointments. The members of the Legislative Assembly shall be entitled to receive three dollars each per day during their attendance at the sessions thereof, and three dollars each for every twenty miles travel in going to and returning from the said sessions, estimated according to the nearest usually traveled route, and an additional allowance of three dollars shall be paid to the presiding officer of each house for each day he shall so preside. And a Chief Clerk, one Assistant Clerk, a Saergent-at-Arms, and Doorkeeper, may be chosen for each House; and the Chief Clerk shall receive four dollars

per day, and the said other officers three dollars per day, during the session of the Legislative Assembly; but no other officers shall be paid by the U. S.: Provided, That there shall be but one session of the Legislature annually, unless, on an extraordinary occasion the Governor shall think proper to call the Legislature together. There shall be appropriated, annually, the usual sum, to be expended by the Governor, to defray the contingent expenses of the Territory, including the salary of a Clerk of the Executive Department, and there shall also be appropriated, annually, a sufficient sum, to be expended by the Secretary of the Territory, and upon an estimate to be made by the Secretary of the Treasury of the U. S., to defray the expenses of the Legislative Assembly, the printing the laws, and other incidental expenses and the Governor and Secretary of the Territory shall, in the disbursement of all moneys entrusted to them, be governed solely by the instructions of the Secretary of the Treasury of the U. S., and shall, simi-annually, account to the said Secretary for the manner in which the aforesaid moneys shall have been expended; and no expenditure shall be made by said Legislative Assembly for objects not specially authorized by the acts of Congress making the appropriations, nor beyond the sums thus appropriated for such objects.

Sec. 13. And be it further enacted, That the Legislative Assembly of the Territory of Nebraska shall hold its first session at such time and place in said Territory as the Governor thereof shall appoint and direct; and at said first session, or as soon thereafter as they shall deem expedient, the Governor and Legislative Assembly shall proceed to locate and establish the seat of government for said Territory, at such place as they may deem elligible, which place, however, shall thereafter be subject to be changed by the said Governor and Legislative Assembly.

Sec. 14. And be it further enacted, That a Delegate to the House of Representatives of the U. S., to serve for the term of two years, who shall be a citizen of the U. S., may be elected by the voters qualified to elect members of the Legislative Assembly, who shall be entitled to the same rights and privileges as are exercised and enjoyed by the delegates from the several other Territories of the U. S. to the said House of Representatives, but the Delegate first elected shall hold his seat only during the term of the Congress to which he shall be elected. The first election shall be held at such time and places, and be conducted in such manner, as the Governor shall appoint and direct, and at all subsequent elections the times, places and manner of holding the elections shall be prescribed by law. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be declared by the Governor to be duly elected, and a certificate thereof shall be given accordingly. That the Constitution and all the laws of the U. S. which are not locally inapplicable shall have the same force and effect within the said Territory of Nebraska as elsewhere in the U. S., except the eighth section of the act preparatory to the admission of Missouri into the Union, approved March 6th, 1820, which being inconsistent with the principle of non-intervention by Congress with slavery in the States and Territories, as recognized by the legislation of 1850, commonly called the compromise measures, is hereby declared inoperative and void; it being the true intent and meaning of this act not to legislate slavery in-

to any Territory or State; nor to exclude it therefrom, but to leave the people thereof perfectly free to form and regulate their domestic institutions in their own way, subject only to the Constitution of the U. S.: Provided, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to revive or put in force any law or regulation which may have existed prior to the act of March 6th, 1820, either protecting, establishing, prohibiting, or abolishing slavery.

Sec. 15. And be it further enacted, That there shall hereafter be appropriated, as has been customary for the Territorial Governments, a sufficient amount, to be expended under the direction of the said Governor of the Territory of Nebraska, not exceeding the sums heretofore appropriated for similar objects, for the erection of suitable public buildings at the seat of government, and for the purchase of a library to be kept at the seat of government for the use of the Governor, Legislative Assembly, Judges of the Supreme Court, Secretary, Marshal and Attorney of said Territory, and such other persons, and under such regulations as shall be prescribed by law.

Sec. 16. And be it further enacted, That when the lands in the said Territory shall be surveyed under the direction of the Government of the U. S., preparatory to bringing the same into market, sections numbered sixteen and thirty-six in each township in said Territory, shall be and the same are hereby reserved for the purpose of being applied to schools in said Territory, and in the States and Territories hereafter to be erected out of the same.

Sec. 17. And be it further enacted, That until otherwise provided by law, the Governor of said Territory may define the judicial districts of said Territory, and assign the Judges who may be appointed for said Territory to the several districts; and also appoint the times and places for holding courts in the several counties or subdivisions in each of said judicial districts by proclamation to be issued by him; but the Legislative Assembly at their first or any subsequent session may organize, alter, or modify such Judicial Districts, and assign the Judges and alter the times and places of holding the courts as to them shall seem proper and convenient.

Sec. 18. And be it further enacted, That all officers to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, for the Territory of Nebraska, who, by virtue of the provisions of any law now existing, or which may be enacted during the present Congress, are required to give security for moneys that may be entrusted with them for disbursement, shall give such security, at such time and place, and in such manner, as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe.

ARTICLE II.

Valley of the Ohio.

BY MANN BUTLER, ESQ.

Continued from page 272, vol. XII. No. 4.

RECAPTURE OF VINCENNES BY THE BRITISH. CAPT. HELM. GOV. HAMILTON. BRITISH PLAN OF CONQUEST FOR THE WESTERN COUNTRY. CLARK'S PLAN FOR RECOVERING VINCENNES FROM THE BRITISH.

After all this success in this distant and most adventurous command, Col. Clark began to entertain great apprehensions for St. Vincents; no news had been received from that place for a considerable length of time. About the 29th of January, 1779, Col. Francis Vigo, an Italian merchant, then in partnership with the Governor of St. Louis, still (in 1832) at the age of 86, a most respected and patriotic citizen of Vincennes,* brought intelligence that Governor Hamilton, of Detroit, had marched from that place in December, 1778, had captured St. Vincents and again reduced it under the power of the British.†

Owing to the advanced stage of the season, the British commandant postponed his operations against Kaskaskia; and in order to employ his restless Indian auxiliaries, whom he had brought with him, to the number of about four hundred, he detached some of them against the settlements of Kentucky; and others to watch

* At this advanced age he most cheerfully instituted inquiries for the author among his compatriots, alas now gone with a long line of ancient friends to his last account.

† There is an anecdote respecting Capt. Leonard Helm connected with the capture of that place, then under his charge, evincing a fearless intrepidity which would ill be omitted. It was communicated to me by the friendly interest of Judge Underwood [now, 1852, in the Senate of the U. S.,] and his venerable relative Edmund Rogers, Esq., of Barren county, Ky., a brother of Captain John Rogers, appointed to the galley called the *Willing*, which was sent from Kaskaskia to ascend the Wabash. The latter gentleman was personally intimate with Clark and his officers for years. When Gov. Hamilton entered Vincennes, there were but two Americans there, *Capt. Helm*, the American commandant, and one *Henry*. They had charged a cannon and placed it in the fort-gateway, while Helm stood by with a lighted match in his hand. When Hamilton, at the head of his troops, got within hailing distance, Helm cried out, in a loud voice, "Halt." This stopped the movement of Hamilton, and in reply, he demanded a surrender of the garrison. Helm exclaimed with an oath, no man shall enter here until I know the terms. Hamilton then told him, "You shall have the honors of war;" and then the fort was surrendered with its whole garrison of *one officer and one private*. Such is a specimen of the character of Col. Clark's followers. They were the very choice men of Virginia and the western frontier, superior to the Indians in arms, equal to them in hardihood, and nearly so in the peculiar arts of the forest. Dangers they scarcely counted, and difficulties presented themselves but to be overcome.—Correspondence of Judge Underwood with the author.

on the Ohio river. In the spring, he contemplated re-assembling his forces for a grand campaign, which should first be directed against Kaskaskia. At this point, which he had no doubt of carrying, he was to be joined by two hundred Indians from Michillimackinack, and five hundred Cherokees, Chickasaws, and other tribes.* With this force united to his own, Gov. Hamilton had orders from the commander in chief in Canada, "to penetrate up the Ohio to Fort Pitt, *sweeping* Kentucky on his way, and taking light brass cannon for the purpose. So flushed was the British commander with the hopes of conquest, that he made no doubt, he could overrun all West Augusta.†

The same gentleman [Col. Vigo,] informed Col. Clark, that Gov. Hamilton had not more than eighty men in garrison, three pieces of cannon and some swivels mounted. Stimulated by this information, with the promptitude inspired by his eminent genius for war, our daring commander determined, in the opinion of the late John Randolph, like his most suitable prototype, the great Hannibal, to carry the war into the enemy's country — as Clark said, "I knew if I did not take him [Hamilton], he would take me"*

A large Mississippi boat was immediately fitted up by Clark, as a galley mounting two four pounders and four swivels, obtained from the enemy's fort at Kaskaskia. It was placed under the command of Capt. John Rogers with a company of forty-six men. This party had orders to force their way up the Wabash, if possible, station themselves a few miles below the mouth of White river, suffer nothing to pass and wait for further orders. This expedition being determined on, the French inhabitants of Cahokia and Kaskaskia raised two companies to join it. The author delights to record this harmony between the ancient French inhabitants of the Illinois and his own countrymen. The men from the

* Clark's Letter to Gov. Jefferson, in the Correspondence of the latter, vol. I, 457.

† The western part of Virginia adjoining the Blue Ridge.

* The Revd. Mr. Peck in his edition of the Western Annals, by the lamented Perkins, p. 207, says that Clark "employed Col. Francis Vigo, then a resident of St. Louis, to make an explanation of the circumstances and strength of the enemy at Post Vincennes." There is no intrinsic improbability in this statement; yet I have not met with any authority for it, either in the Memoir of Clark or his Letter to Gov. Jefferson, [I. 451, Dillon, p. 151.] All the writers that I have seen, have rested, and very properly their statement of this matter, on the Memoir of Clark himself, first published by the author in his History of the Commonwealth of Kentucky. I think I have heard of a life of Col. Vigo, but have not met with it.

former village were commanded by Capt. McCarty, and the latter company by Capt. Francois Charleville. These added to the Virginians made a party of one hundred and seventy men in the aggregate.

On the 7th of February, 1779, this forlorn hope commenced its march to St Vincents, over the drowned lands of the Wabash, in a wet though fortunately not a cold season. The march was pursued along the "old Vincennes trace," followed by the Indians from the earliest time. It is as Reynolds* pleasantly says, "the Appian way of Illinois in ancient times. It commenced at Detroit, thence to Ouiatenon [or Weatowns,] on the Wabash,† thence to Vincennes, and thence to Kaskaskia. It is yet [1852] visible in many places between Kaskaskia and Vincennes."‡ This dreary and fatiguing march was alleviated by the politic management of Clark, who to divert his men encouraged hunting parties and invitations from one company to another, successively to feasts, or game, and to join in war dances of a night, in the manner of the Indians. In his own words, "I suffered them to shoot game on all occasions, and feast on it like Indian war dancers ; each company by turns inviting the others to their feasts ; which was the case every night ; as the company that was to give the feast was always supplied with horses, to lay up a sufficient store of wild meat, in the course of the day ; myself and principal officers putting on the woodsmen, sporting now and then, and running as much through the mud and water as any of them." Thus insensibly, without a murmur, were these men led on to the banks of the Little Wabash, which we reached on the 13th of February, 1779, through incredible difficulties, far surpassing anything that any of us had ever experienced. Frequently the diversions of the night wore off the thought of the preceding day.‖

At the point, the expedition had now arrived, the forks of the stream [the Little Wabash it is supposed,] are three miles, and the opposite heights of land five miles apart in the ordinary state of the water. At the time of Clark's arrival here, the interval was covered with water "generally three feet deep, never under two,

* History of Illinois. Belleville, Ills. 1852. p. 79.

† This Ouiatenon or Wea village stood on the southern bank of the Wabash or the tract of land which is now called "Wea prairie," about eight miles below the site of the town of La Fayette, in Tippecanoe county, Indiana. Dillon, p. 283.

‡ Reynolds, p. 79.

‖ Clark's Memoir.

and frequently over four."* By the 18th, the party got so near St. Vincents as to hear the morning and evening guns of the British fort; and on the evening of the same day reached within nine miles of the town, below the mouth of the Embarras river. Great difficulties were now experienced in getting canoes in which to cross the river; and the men required all Clark's address and commanding spirit to keep their spirits from failing. Still there was no sight of the galley, which had been dispatched under Captain Rogers to meet them on the Wabash. Canoes could not be built in time to save the party, in the destitute condition in which they were, from starving.

On the 20th, the water guard brought a boat to, from which the cheering intelligence was received, of the good disposition of the inhabitants of St. Vincents towards the Americans; and the continued ignorance of our movement, on the part of the enemy. There was yet a large sheet of water to cross, which proved, on sounding, to be up to the arm-pit; on the report being made, and Clark speaking seriously to an officer, the whole detachment caught alarm, and despair seemed ready to possess them. Col. Clark observing the depression on the faces of his men, whispered to one or two officers near him, to imitate him immediately, in what he was going to do; he then took a little gun powder in his hand, and mixing it with some water, blacked his face with it, raised the Indian war whoop, and marched into the water, imitated and followed by his men without a murmur.

So much does the conduct of men in large bodies depend upon the address and tone of a commander. This trick of backwoods invention communicated a new impulse to the party, and they stepped into the water with a cheerfulness, which many troops under their sufferings, would not have shown on land. A favorite song was now raised, and the whole detachment joined in the chorus. When the party had got to the deepest part of the water, then about waist-deep, where it was intended to transport the troops in two canoes, which had been fortunately taken, one of the men said he felt a path, [which is said to be quite perceptible to naked feet,] and it being concluded that it kept on the highest ground, the march was continued to a place called the Sugar Camp, where was found about half an acre of ground not under water. Here the party took up their lodging for the night. From

* Idem.

this spot another wide plain of water was to be crossed, and what heightened the difficulty was, the absence of all timber, to afford support to the famishing and fatigued party in their wading. "The camp very quiet," says Major Bowman in his journal, "but hungry. Some almost in despair." "At break of day on the 21st, began to ferry our men over the Wabash in two canoes to a small hill called the Mamelle." "The whole party being over, we thought to get to town that night, so plunged into the water, sometimes to the neck, for more than one league, where we stopped on a hill of the same name [with the last], there being no dry land, an any side for many leagues. Our pilots say, we can not get along—that it is impossible. The whole army being over, we encamped; rain all this day; no provisions."*

The object of all their toils and sufferings, St. Vincents was almost in sight; and after a spirited address which Clark says, "I forget, but it may easily be imagined by a person who could possess any affection for his men at such a time. I concluded by informing them, that passing the plain that was then in full sight, and reaching the opposite woods, would put an end to their fatigue—that in a few hours they would have a sight of the long wished for object; and immediately stepped into the water, without waiting for any reply. A general huzza took place."† The ice "in the morning had formed from one half to three quarters of an inch thick. It was the coldest night we had;" but "the morning was the finest we had on our march. Before the third man stepped off, Clark ordered Capt. Bowman to fall back with twenty-five men, and put any man to death who refused to march, for no coward should disgrace this company of brave men. The whole gave a cry of approbation, and on we went;"—they followed their fearless commander; sometimes they were cheered with the deceptive cry of the advance guard, that the water was growing shallower; and as they approached the woods, land, land—the favorite cry of mariners was halloed out. This stratagem had its desired effect. The men encouraged by it, exerted themselves almost beyond their abilities — the weak holding by the stronger. The water never got shallower, but in reality continued deepening. Getting to the woods where the men expected land, the water was up to my shoulders; but gaining the woods was of great conse-

* Major Bowman's Journal.

† Clark's Memoir.

quence: all the low men and the weakly hung to the trees, and floated on the old logs, until they were taken off by the canoes. The strong and tall got ashore and built fires. Many would reach the shore, and fall with their bodies half in the water, not being able to support themselves without it.

While resting at a spot of dry timbered land, a canoe of Indian squaws and children was discovered and captured together with nearly half a quarter of buffalo, some corn, tallow, kettles, &c. This was indeed a grand prize. Broth was immediately made and served out to the most weakly with great care; most of the men got a little; but a great many gave their part to the weakly, jocosely saying something cheerful to their comrades. This little refreshment and fine weather by the afternoon gave new life to the whole. Crossing a narrow deep lake in the canoes, and marching some distance, we came to a copse of timber, called the Warrior's Island. We were now in full view of the fort and town, not a shrub between us, at about two miles distance. Every man now feasted his eyes, and forgot that he had suffered anything—saying that all that passed was owing to good policy, and nothing but what a man could bear, and that a soldier had no right to think."*

Several men were observed out on horseback shooting ducks within half a mile of the American party; one of these was taken prisoner by some Frenchmen who had been sent to decoy one of them without alarming the rest. The information we got from this prisoner corresponded with what we had got from others on the river, except that the British had just completed that evening the wall of the fort, and that there were a good many Indians in town. "Our situation," says Clark, "was now truly critical—no possibility of retreating in case of defeat—and in full view of a town that had, at this time, upwards of six hundred men in it, troops, inhabitants and Indians." "Our fate was to be determined probably in a few hours. We knew that the most daring conduct could alone secure success. I knew that a number of the inhabitants wished us well—that a number was lukewarm to the interest of either." "These were favorable circumstances; and as there was little probability of our remaining until dark undiscovered, I determined to begin the career immediately; and wrote a letter directed to the inhabitants of the Post, informing them that "I would take possession of their fort this night, and requesting

* Clark's Memoir.

the true friends of liberty to remain still in their own houses; and those who are friends to the King to repair to the fort, join the *hair buying* general and fight like men; or if any such should afterwards be discovered, they might depend on severe punishment." The inhabitants were again requested to keep out of the streets. "For every one I shall find in arms on my arrival," said Clark, "I shall treat as an enemy."

Seldom has frank notice been given to an enemy of an intended attack, and choice afforded to retire to his friends. It was resorted to in hopes that its imposing character would add to American friends, and increase the dismay of their enemies. So much did it operate in this way, that the expeditiou was believed to be from Kentucky, so impossible was it deemed in the condition of the waters, that it could come from Illinois. This idea was confirmed by several messages under the assumed name of persons known to be in Kentucky to their acquaintances in St. Vincents. Nor would the presence of Clark be credited, until his person was pointed out by one who knew him.

To mask the weakness of the American force, the soldiers had their instructions to frame their conversation before strangers, so as to lead them to believe they were at least a thousand men. There was one circumstance, which occasioned much surprise to our countrymen, which was that although a great deal of bustle was perceived in the streets of the town, and great numbers running or riding into the commons, to view the invaders; yet not a drum was heard, nor a gun was fired from the fort. In fact, as was afterwards learned, even the friends of the British were afraid to give the garrison notice of Clark's presence.

About sunset, on the 28th of February, 1779, the American party set off "in full view of the town crowds gazing at us," to take possession of St. Vincents, marching and countermarching round some heights and displaying several sets of colors which had been brought by the French volunteers, and were now raised on poles procured for that purpose. These might be seen, yet the elevations in the plain and their oblique direction completely prevented the troops "from being numbered." "In this manner we moved and directed our march in such a way as to suffer it to be dark before we had advanced more than half way to the town: we then suddenly changed our direction, crossed ponds where we could not have been expected, and about 8 o'clock gained the heights

back of the town." Still there was no hostile demonstration on the part of the British, and the impatience of the Americans to unriddle the mystery was extreme.

For this purpose, Lieut. Bayley with fourteen men was sent to command an attack on the fort; still the fire of this party was at first attributed to some drunken Indians, who frequently saluted the fort in this manner, until a man was shot down through a port hole, when the engagement began in good earnest on both sides. The main body of the Americans had moved in a different direction, and taken possession of the strongest part of the town. Reinforcements were sent to the attacking party, while other arrangements were making in town. During the fire on the fort, when the American amunition began to grow scarce, owing to reliance upon the stores in the galley, a fortunate disclosure of both powder and balls was made by the owners Colonel Legras and Major Bosseron and others. This had been buried to keep it out of the hands of the British, who had threatened to take the whole of the goods in the town, for the king's use, giving bills for the same. This store well supplied our wants. The son of Tobacco, a powerful chief and a warm friend to the Long Knife, and particularly of Capt. Helm, then a British prisoner, offered his services together with a hundred warriors. The offer was, however, declined, for fear of confounding them with the hostile Indians known to be in town; but his presence and counsel were desired and readily given.

The fire on the fort continued without intermission, except for about fifteen minutes, a little before day. Our men would lie within twenty or thirty yards of the fort untouched by the enemy's cannon, owing to the awkward elevation of the platforms. They did no damage except to the buildings of the town, some of which they much shattered, while their musketry employed against men covered by houses, pailings, ditches and the banks of the river, was of no avail.

While on the other hand, no sooner was a port hole opened by the enemy, or even darkened, than our riflemen finding its true direction would pour such volleys into it, that the men could not stand to their guns. Seven or eight of them were cut down, and Clark says, that I believe, if they had stood to their artillery, the greater part of them would have been killed in the course of the night. By this terribly concentrated fire, the garrison became discouraged. Thus the attack continued until about nine o'clock

in the morning of the 24th, when learning that two prisoners whom the enemy had brought in the day before, had a considerable number of letters with them, Clark supposed it might be an express, which was expected about this time. Fearful of their destruction, he sent a fierce demand of capitulation and threats of vengeance for destroying papers or letters which might be in possession of the British officer, or hurting one house in town. Lieut. Gov. Hamilton firmly replied to this unmilitary demand, "that he and his garrison are not disposed to be awed into any action unworthy of British subjects." Our men were eager for a storm of the fort; Clark sternly repelled such rashness. The firing was heavy through every crack that could be discovered in any part of the fort. Several of the garrison were wounded, and there was no possibility of standing at the embrasures.

In the evening, the British officer finding his cannon useless, and apprehensive for the result of being taken at discretion, sent a flag desiring a truce of three days. This Clark thought imprudent to grant; although he himself daily expected a reinforcement with artillery by the arrival of his galley. He proposed in return, that the British garrison should be surrendered prisoners at discretion, and that Hamilton should with Capt. Helm meet him, at the church about eighty yards from the fort. In consequence of this offer, the British commandant, Major Hay, Superintendent of Indian affairs, and Capt. Helm, their prisoner, met Col. Clark and Major Bowman. Terms were proposed by Lieut. Gov. Hamilton, one of which stipulated that the garrison should be surrendered on them being permitted to go to Pensacola, on parole. After some deliberation, they were rejected by Clark, who told the British officer, that his troops were impatient and called aloud for permission to tear down and storm the fort. "If such a step was taken many of course would be cut down, and the result of an enraged body of woodsmen breaking in must be obvious to him; it would be out of the power of an American officer to save a single man."* Capt. Helm attempting to moderate the excited feelings of Colonel Clark, was reminded by him that he was a British prisoner, and he doubted whether he could with propriety speak on the subject. The British commander then said, that Capt. Helm was liberated from that moment; but Clark refused to accept his release on such terms; he must return to the garrison and meet his fate. The

* Clark's Memoir.

British commander was then informed, that hostilities should not begin, until five minutes after the drums had given the alarm.

The officers were taking their course to their respective quarters, when Gov. Hamilton called to Col. Clark and politely inquired of him, what his reasons were for rejecting the surrender on the liberal terms which had been proposed to him. The American officer then with affected severity told him, "I know the principal Indian partizans of Detroit are in the fort, and I only want an honorable opportunity of putting such instigators of Indian barbarities to death: the cries of the widows and orphans made by their butcheries require such blood at my hands. So sacred," continued Clark, "do I consider this claim upon me for punishment, that I think it next to divine; and I would rather lose fifty men, than not execute a vengeance demanded by so much innocent blood. If Governor Hamilton chooses to risk the destruction of his garrison for the sake of such miscreants, it was at his own pleasure." Upon this, Maj. Hay enquired, "Who is it that you call Indian partizans?" Clark keenly and promptly replied, "I consider Maj. Hay one of the principal ones." The change in Hay's countenance was instantaneous, like one on the point of execution, "pale and trembling, scarcely able to stand." Gov. Hamilton blushed for his behavior; while Capt. Bowman's countenance expressed as much respect and sorrow for the former, as contempt for the latter. Some minutes elapsed without a word passing on either side. From that moment, "my resolution," says Clark, "changed respecting Hamilton. I told him, we would return to our respective posts; that I would reconsider the matter and let him know the result by a flag. No offensive measures should be taken in the meantime. This was agreed to on both sides, and the officers parted.

On submitting the terms to the American officers, it was agreed that we should moderate our terms. They ware immediately communicated to Gov. Hamilton, and acceded to by him.

This capitulation surrendered Fort *Sackville* to the Americans on the 24th of February, 1779; the garrison was to be considered "as prisoners of war, and march out with their arms and accoutrements." On the next day, the fort was taken possession of by Col. Clark, at the head of the companies of Capts. Williams and Witherington, while Capts. Bowman and McCarty received the prisoners. The stars and stripes were again hoisted over Fort Sackville which had first been elevated by Capt. Helm during the

last year; and may they ever continue to float over an unbroken, wise and virtuous republic. Thirteen cannons to correspond with the old thirteen States, now [in 1854,] numbering 31, were fired to celebrate the reduction of the most important hostile post upon the Indian frontier; it was at that day, what Detroit and Malden have been at a later period, and what the European forts have always been, in the hands of the possessors — keys to influence and control over the native tribes.

At this surrender, there were only 79 prisoners received, with considerable stores; yet these facts form a very inadequate criterion of the importance of the conquest. It is not the intrinsic strength of the British garrison that is to be principally regarded; it is the horde of savages which it would have encouraged in destruction and murder on a most exposed frontier, extending their ravages, according to the hopes of the vanquished, to the Blue Ridge in Virginia. Such is the proper point of view from which to estimate the value of Clark's exertions in the conquest of the western country, but particularly the valley of the Ohio. Vincennes has from the time of its final reduction been one of the most important strongholds of the West—another advance post of European and American civilization established on the frontier, not subject to the insults and in the power of the Indians; but bridling their outrages and sending forth in some goodly degree, humanizing influences, which are showing themselves in the new homes of the tribes west of the Mississippi.

Col. Clark was astonished on viewing the strength of the post, at its easy surrender; but on reflection was convinced it might have been undermined, as the fort was within thirty feet of the river bank. If even this attempt had failed, his information was so exact, that on the arrival of his artillery, the first hot shot could have blown up the magazine.

On the day after the surrender of the British garrison, Captain Helm was despatched up the Wabash, with a detachment of sixty men, to intercept some boats with provisions and goods from Detroit. All of which were surprised, and stores to the amount of ten thousand sterling with forty prisoners were captured.

On the return of this successful expedition with the British flags still flying at the mast-head, our long expected galley, the *Willing* from Kaskaskia, hove in sight, and prepared for an attack upon the little river squadron descending the river, which was still sup-

posed to belong to the enemy. But soon the beloved ensign of American freedom was hoisted to the joy and triumph of our countrymen. They were only mortified to find that they had not been present to aid in the reduction of the British and Indian stronghold.

It is not suitable to dismiss this brilliant achievement of Col. Clark and his hardy and daring followers without a passing reflection. Too much credit can scarcely be awarded to so adventurous an expedition into the heart of British influence, among hordes of warlike and hostile savages, at the head of a mere handfull of men, though of the hardiest stamp of hardy and heroic times. Its influence in the war then raging on the seaboard, its diversion of Indian hostility from that hard pressed portion of the republic, have been less dwelt on, though not less real than its magnificent enlargement of the republic, from the barrier of the Alleghanies [urged by both France and Spain with every art of diplomacy and for some time too successfully,] to the wide expanse of the northern lakes and the Mississippi. This augmentation of the republic, the redemption of the valley of the Ohio from European dominion, and its rescue in no small degree from savage rule are eminently due to Col. Clark, his gallant Illinois regiment and the brave Creoles of the Illinois.

Still, I cannot forbear remarking that the feelings of the border people exasperated by the savage war in which they were engaged, entered too much into the measures pursued against the British. Our people could not look with the calm sentiments of professional and civilized belligerents upon a war prosecuted by the unseen and unexpected rifle—the deadly tomahawk and scalping knife; weapons which were used upon all alike, on men in arms, not more readily than on women and children. To them it was no mere game of skill, heroism and mutual magnanimity, like the chivalric contest of the older continent. There was no ground for such lofty feelings in their state of society; difficult enough to cherish, under the most generous forms of murderous war. They would not have been reciprocated, because utterly alien to Indian warfare. The reader then must not be surprised, when he sees the severity of Col. Clark to the *hair-buyers*, as the British rewarders of scalps were bitterly denominated. Much of the harshness of Col. Clark to Cerre at Kaskaskia, and Hamilton and Hay at St. Vincents, must be attributed to the naturally excited feelings

of the times, and the theater of action, and not to the natural disposition of the man.

European nations carrying on war upon this continent have never been able to avoid employing its savage tribes as auxiliaries. To reject them as such, would have been to engage them as additional enemies. Our own government forms no exception to this remark; they have been compelled to employ the native tribes against each other in their own defence when engaged in hostilities with any of them. The truth is, the Indian follows war, as the vulture the carrion; and if driven from one side, he is sure to be found on the other. Still much control over native ferocity may be exercised by stern adherence to humanity and encouragement offered for *prisoners*, rather than *scalps*.

ARTICLE III.

Zuni and Colorado Rivers. REPORT OF CAPTAIN SITGREAVES.

As all information touching the broad region between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific coast is calculated to interest the American people at the present time, we have selected a few paragraphs from the Report of an Expedition down the Zuni and Colorado Rivers, by Capt. L. Sitgreaves, Corps Topographical Engineers.

The Pueblo of Zuni is situated on the parallel of 35° 04′ 10″ n. latitude. The longitude is not given by Capt. Sitgreaves; but its location on the map shows it to be but a few minutes east of the 108° of longitude west of Greenwich. The author says:

"The Zuni is a mere rivulet, and not entitled to the name of river; in most parts of our country it would not be dignified with that of creek. The corn-fields of the Zuni Indians extended at intervals for several miles down the stream, their crops and orchards being planted on the edge of the valley, or in the fertile gorges of the mountains. The only cultivation in the immediate vicinity of the pueblo consisted of small vegetable gardens, tended by the women and watered by hand, in which were grown chiefly onions, beans, and chile." In a note, the author says: "Since the establishment of the military post at Canon Bonito, and the consequent pacfication of the Navajos, the amount of cultivation has greatly increased. During the past season the Zuni Indians had some ten thousand acres in corn, and the Moquis a still greater quantity. The orchards produce good peaches."

"The Zuni is a northern tributary of the Little Colorado, and flows in a westerly direction until it falls into the latter, about 58 miles from the Pueblo. From the Pueblo the party followed the general direction of the stream by a well-beaten trail which enabled it to avoid the inconvenience of traveling over ground rendered soft and miry by the recent rains." Very little notice is taken of the Zuni valley by the author.

The following paragraph contains the only description which we have of the country from the Pueblo to the mouth of the river: "Camp No. 3. — The valley is here shut in by abrupt walls of gray sandstone, occasionally mixed with basalt, having frequent springs running out from under them; but farther down it expands to several miles in width, other valleys opening into it. The faces of the sandstone rocks, wherever they presented a smooth surface, were covered with Indian hieroglyphics, or pictures, carved or painted upon them."

The 4th camp of the party after leaving the Pueblo of Zuni was located on the Little Colorado. At this point, the author says: "it is an insignificant stream, divided into several small channels, flowing through a narrow valley destitute of timber, but covered with a thick growth of rank unnutritious grass. The hills bounding it on either side are of a gradual slope, with here and there a rocky point, of a conglomerate of gray sandstone and pebbles jutting out into the bottom." The following extracts from Captain Sitgreave's Journal contains nearly all that is interesting in his description of the country.

September 28, *Camp No.* 5.—Proceeding down the valley, it widens out into a broad plain, which the recent profuse rains had made soft and muddy. To avoid this we turned off from the river, and made our way across the high land, but gained little by the exchange, for the soil was so light and thinly covered with grass that the mules sank to their fetlocks at every step. The ground was strewed with pebbles of agate, jasper, and chalcedony, and masses of what appeared to have been stumps of trees petrified into jasper, beautifully striped with bright shades of red, [the predominating color,] blue, white, and yellow. The rocks were gray sandstone, sometimes of a slaty structure.

Septe ber 30, *Camp No.* 7.—The river here runs through a deep and rocky canon, which we skirted, and crossed below it to the south bank, finding the ground much broken by ravines, which were only visible when we came directly upon them. The surrounding scenery resembled that of the northwestern prairies, the country being bare of trees and the horizon unbroken, except in one direction, where a high conical peak, that had served us several days as a land mark, varied the uniformity of its outline.

October 1, *Camp No.* 8. — The river, winding to the north, gave us a straight course across the high land, soft and sandy, as

usual, and frequently intersected by deep ravines, until we again encountered it, flowing now between bluff sandy banks fringed with cotton-wood trees, and presenting at length the appearance of a river, but still with little water in its bed. I remarked cropping out of the side of a bluff a seam of fibrous gypsum three or four inches thick. In the course of the day's march the San Francisco mountains became visible to the west, and to the north several singular volcanic peaks.

October 2, *Camp No.* 9.—The river here receives a tributary known among trappers as Chevelon's Fork. * * * In several places veins of fibrous gypsum were seen, looking like the ice-crystals that burst open the ground in spring.

October 3, *Camp No.* 10. — Our course was here interrupted by a deep bayou thickly overgrown with rushes, and which, on attempting to turn it, was found to lead to a rocky ravine or canon utterly impassable. We retraced our steps, therefore, and with much difficulty recrossed the river, which, making a bend to the north, winds through a broad plain resembling the bed of a great lagoon from which the water had just subsided, leaving it slimy and intersected with fissures and channels that often impeded our progress. Here and there only a bush of the wild sage dotted its surface, and the surrounding hills appeared equally destitute of vegetation.

October 5, *Camp No.* 12.—The country on the north side presenting the same appearance of desolation as far as the eye could discern, we again crossed the river, and, passing to higher ground, encamped on a bayou near the edge of the valley. The grass upon the hills was invariably better and more abundant than in the river bottom, but the absence of wood and water in such places generally obliged us to make our camps near the river.

October 7, *Camp No.* 13.—Many precipitous canons were passed, enclosing within their walls of yellow sandstone clumps of cotton-wood trees. Ridges of lava and black dust, the detritus of the lava, covering the ground in many places, indicated our approach to a volcanic region. Near our camp, on the bank of the river, were the ruins of several stone houses, which the guide, Mr. Leroux, said resembled those of the Moqui Indians.

October 8, *Camp No.* 14.—About a mile below the last camp the river falls over a succession of horizontal ledges of sandstone, forming a beautiful cascade of one hundred and twenty feet in vertical height, and continues on its course through a canon of that depth, the general level of the banks remaining the same.

Having been informed by my guide and other experienced trappers that the canon extends down the river to its junction with the Colorado, and the great canon through which the latter flows, I regarded the attempt to follow the river to its mouth as too hazardous, considering the condition of the animals and the state of

supplies, and therefore, by the advice of the guide, turned off towards the mountains, with the purpose of striking the Colorado below the great canon, and then exploring it upward as far as might be found practicable. Leaving the river then, we passed along the base of high table lands, the lava-sand lying several inches deep upon the ground, filling up the hollows, and forming ridges across the plain; and, ascending the plateau, found it also covered with the lava detritus, and all the prominent points occupied by the ruins of stone houses of considerable size, and in some instances of three stories in height. They are evidently the remains of a large town, as they occurred at intervals for an extent of eight or nine miles, and the ground was thickly strewed with fragments of pottery in all directions. The fact that no vestige of water could be discovered in the vicinity, sufficiently accounts for their present depopulation. The encroachment of the lava-sand blown down from the adjacent mountains may have gradually filled up the springs and water-courses; it is certain, at any rate, that the heaviest rains would now be rapidly absorbed by it, and after a day or two leave no trace of water upon the surface.

The houses resemble in all respects (except that *adobes* do not appear to have been used in their construction) those of the existing pueblos of New Mexico; and the pottery, of a great variety of fabric and pattern, is similar to that now in use among them.

October 9, *Camp No.* 15.—Pursuing our way still farther into the mountains, the ruins became of rarer occurrence, or else were concealed by the cedars with which the hills were covered.*** [The mules being sent off in search of water, the party remained at this camp the second night.]

October 11, *Camp No.* 16.—As we ascended the mountain the cedar gave place to the nut-bearing pine; and this, when near the summit, to a pine of larger growth with long leaves. Herds of anelope were seen in all directions, but they kept to the open country, and were shy and difficult to approach.

October 12, *Camp No.* 17.—The ascent of the mountain was continued, with the greatest anxiety as to the result of the day's journey; for the mules had drunk but once in more than four days, and the country showed no indications of water in any direction. There was much beauty in some of the glades and mountain glens we passed. The ground was covered with fresh grass and well timbered with tall pines, mingled, after attaining a certain altitude, with aspens of a brilliant yellow."

After crossing this mountain, a spring was found at its foot, where the party halted a day or two to refresh their mules. On the 15th of October, the party proceded across plains of gentle slope. A few small post-oaks were found mingled with the pines; and in a glade was found some white clover; flowers and birds were more numerous than on the northern slope of the mountain.

The party encamped upon the dry bed of a lagoon, a mile in extent, having some small pools of water hidden among the tall grass. They remained here several days on account of the illness of one of the men. The author says of this region: "The daily variation of the temperature was remarkable, the average range in twenty-four hours being about 55° Fahrenheit, or from 10° to 65°."

After several days travel through a region of extreme sterility, and suffering much for the want of water, on the 30th of October, the party reached a small stream, of which the author says: "This rivulet, which I have called the Yampai, has its source in three small springs; it is repeatedly lost in the ground within a distance of half a mile, after which it disappears entirely. A few willow and cotton-wood trees grow upon its banks, and green grass was here seen for the first time since leaving the San Francisco mountains. Here, too, we enjoyed the luxury of a bath and clean clothes—a luxury not fully appreciable by those who have not gone a week without water to wash even their faces and hands."

The party proceeded down the valley of the Yampai for about twelve miles, but finding that it led them out of their course, they diverged from it into a wide barren plain, where they encamped without water, grass, or wood. In front of them lay a bold range of mountains which having crossed by a rugged and difficult pass, they found themselves in the valley of the great Colorado, surrounded by numerous Indians. The point where the party reached the Colorado, is below the great canon in Latitude 35° 8′ 55″ north and Longitude 114° 35′ west, 414 miles by the route travelled from the pueblo of Zuni, and 243 miles above the mouth of the Gila. "At this point," the author says, "the river was 260 yards wide, with six feet of water in the deepest part; the banks bluff and sandy, about twelve feet high, and the current rapid; but a dense growth of willows and weeds prevented me from measuring its velocity with any degree of accuracy. The presence of water seemed to afford the only relief from our former privations; for the soil, an almost impalpable sand, bore nothing but dry weeds and bushes, and the whole scene presented the most perfect picture of desolation I have ever beheld, as if some sirocco had passed over the land, withering and scorching everything to crispness." * * * "The whole country traversed from the San Francisco mountains was barren and devoid of interest. It consists of a succession of mountain ranges and desert plains, the latter having an average height of about 5,000 feet above the level of the ocean. The larger growth, almost exclusively of cedar, was confined to the mountains; and the scanty vegetation of the plains, parched by a long drought, furnished few specimens for the botanist."

Notwithstanding the desolate aspect of the country, the valley of the Colorado seems to be inhabited by Indians—the Mohaves—who to some extent cultivate the soil. Describing the first day's travel down the Colorado, the author says: "A well-worn trail

leads down the river, by the side of which in several places were found traced on the ground Indian hieroglyphics, which Mr. Leroux and a Mexican of the party, who had passed many years among the Comanches, interpreted into warnings to us to turn back, and threats against our penetrating farther into the country. We had not gone far before Indians were seen in front in considerable numbers, who appeared to be assembling to dispute our advance. By the exchange of friendly signs, three of them, mounted on fine horses, were induced to approach, whom a few presents sufficed to convince of our peaceful intentions; and they joined the party, and accompanied its march. As we proceeded their number received accessions at every step, until it amounted to some two hundred men, women, and children, who followed on foot, running by the side of the mules, and talking and laughing with every appearance of friendship. In the evening the camp was crowded with them, bringing in for barter small quantities of pumpkins, beans, corn, and, in one or two instances, of wheat, which seem to be the staples of their food, for no animals, except a few horses, were seen among them; and the few sheep we had left were the objects of great admiration, especially to the women.

The appearance of the Mohaves is striking, from their unusual stature, the men averaging at least six feet in height; and their stalwart and athletic figures offered a convincing proof of the excellence of a vegetable diet. Almost all the men were naked, with the exception of the breech-cloth. The hair, cut sqare across the brows in front, hung in loose braids behind, reaching frequently as low as the waist; occasionally it was matted on the top of the head into a compact mass with mud, for the purpose of destroying the vermin that infest them. The only garment worn by the women was a long fringe of strips of willow-bark wound around the waist, and falling as low as the knees. No covering to the feet was worn by either sex. Their arms are the bow and arrow, the spear and the club. The arrow is formed of two pieces—that to which the barb is attached, of hard wood, seven inches long, or one-fourth the entire length; and the other of a light reed that grows profusely along the banks of the river, feathered, as usual, at the extremity. The custom still prevails among them of carrying a firebrand in the hand in cold weather, which is mentioned in the account of Coronado's expedition in 1540, and induced those discoverers to give to the river the name of Rio Del Tizon. Their lodges are rectangular, formed of upright posts imbedded in the ground, and rudely thatched on the top and three sides; a portion of the interior altitude being sometimes obtained by excavation. I saw none of so great a size as those described in the account just referred to.

Our progress down the river, though heralded by signal fires as we advanced, was continued without further molestation. Numbers of the mules gave out daily for the want of food, until we were

driven to the necessity of destroying all the spare saddles, blankets, tents, ammunition, books, and whatever was not absolutely essential to our safety. Our provisions, too, became exhausted; and the mules, the poorest of which were daily killed for the purpose, supplied our only food until the 30th of November, when we arrived with a small remnant of them at Camp Yuma, near the mouth of the Gila, where rations were obtained for the subsistence of the party to San Diego, California.

Below the point at which we reached the Colorado, irregular lines of rugged mountains enclose its valley, now receding to a distance of some twenty miles, now advancing towards each other; and at three places abutting against the river, hem it in between rocky promontories, leaving no room for a roadway at their base. The passage of these defiles were the most difficult portions of the journey, requiring long detours over naked cliffs of extreme acclivity; to cross which we were sometimes obliged to break stepping places in the rock for the mules, and to assist them in their ascent by means of ropes, and where a misstep, or the jostling of a pack against an impending crag, would occasionally precipitate one of them to the bottom of the adjacent precipice. The arable land bordering upon the river is greatly encroached upon by extensive flat spurs, hard, gravelly, and destitute of vegetation, which reach far out into the valley, leaving a comparatively small proportion of the space between the mountains susceptible of cultivation. Some large cotton-wood trees grow directly upon the river banks, but the growth of the rest of the valley is small, consisting chiefly of mezquit, tornilla, willow, and a singular tree with a smooth, pale-green bark, and leaves so diminutive as to require a close proximity to discern them. The shrubs are the arrow-wood, wild sage, *hediondilla*, or creosote plant, and grease weed, so called from the brilliancy of its flame while burning. Cacti are not numerous; the most remarkable is the *pitahaya*, or *Cereus giganteus*.

Only two kinds of grass were found, at rare intervals and in small quantities; a tall, coarse variety, growing in large tufts, and a smaller kind, having a perceptible incrustation of salt upon the leaves.

The trap in some places along the river showed traces of carbonate of copper; and beneath the trap was seen a coarse, gray granite, and in one instance a stratum of clay slate.

Near Camp 51 a large rock occupies the middle of the channel, and ledges extend from it across to both banks. In many other places the river is obstructed by shifting sand bars, rendering its navigation difficult, if not impossible, except during a high stage of the water. The water-stains upon the rocks marked a height of twelve feet above the actual level, but the indications of overflow were partial, except near the mouth of the Gila, where a large surface appears to be subject to inundation."

ARTICLE IV.

Africa and African Slavery.

The social condition of man denominated "slavery" proceeds as a natural consequence from the economy of his nature considered in connection with his disobedience to the laws of the Creator and his relations to the physical world. Every individual of the human family owes service of some sort to his fellow-man: it is a condition of his being from which there is no escape with impunity. The nature and degree of this service must be determined in part by natural laws, and events over which neither individuals or nations have control, and in part by institutions established by man.

In a view of the human race embracing all its parts and relations, we may observe this obligation to *serve one another* modified by an infinite variety of conditions and circumstances, which determine the nature of the services to be performed and the burthens borne in every conceivable case, from the kind offices which proceed from the mutual friendship and love of individuals of equal degree to a state of involuntary and absolute servitude.

The relations established between a subjugated race and their masters are determined not so much by physical power as by the difference which may exist in the degree of intelligence and virtue possessed by the respective parties. And we are warranted in the belief that the Creator in the exercise of his wisdom and benevolence, sometimes, ordains the subjugation of an ignorant and viceous race to one possessing a higher degree of civilization, that the former may be improved, and finally redeemed from their degraded condition.

Such we most sincerely believe to be the case in respect to the present relations between the Anglo-Saxon and African races on this continent. In this view of the object, it would be a national sin to sever these relations by any act of ours before the purposes for which they were established shall have been accomplished. To sever them suddenly, would degrade still lower the African race in this country, while it would leave that portion remaining in their own land in its former and present degraded state without a hope of redemption.

Viewing the subject of slavery in this light, and deprecating the political and religious strife which springs, as we believe, from ig-

norance of the natural and social laws governing the relations of individuals, and the destinies of nations, we are truly gratified that our accomplished co-temporary and friend, Hugh A. Garland, Esq., has undertaken to write a book upon this intricate and interesting subject.

Having been favored with a perusal of a portion of the manuscript, we feel authorized to say that, if the author carries out the work according to the design, as we understand it, he will do more to enlighten the people of this country upon the institution of slavery than all the writers who have preceded him since its introduction upon the continent. Such a work is much needed; and it will be a disparagement to the intelligence and taste of the American people, if the philosophy and historical truth of GARLAND should not obtain a circulation equal at least to the fiction of STOWE.

We have been permitted to copy the following chapter "*On Africa*," in advance of the publication of the work, and are persuaded that the conclusions of the author touching the moral necessity of transferring a part of the African race to this country to redeem them from barbarism, will be assented to by every intelligent and unprejudiced mind.

AFRICA.

The amelioration of the customs of Europe had proceeded from the influence of religion. At the epoch of the discovery of America, the moral opinion of the civilized world had abolished the traffick in christian slaves—Anglo-Saxons no longer trafficked in Anglo-Saxons—but the infidel was not included within the pale of humanity. As native christians of Europe ceased to be slaves, pagan Africans were substituted in their place.

Yet negro slavery is not an invention of the white man. As the Greeks enslaved Greeks, and Hebrew Hebrews in the earliest dawn of history, so the negro race enslaved its own brethren. The oldest accounts of the land of negroes, bear witness to the existence of domestic slavery and the caravans of dealers in negro slaves.

Herodotus, the oldest Greek historian, speaks of the traffick. Negro slaves were seen in classic Greece, and were known at Rome and in the Roman empire. It was about the latter part of the tenth century that Moorish merchants from the Barbary coast first reached the cities of Nigritia, and established an uninterrupted exchange of Saracen and European luxuries for the gold and slaves of Central Africa. The merchants of Seville imported gold dust and slaves from the western coast of Africa, and negro slavery was

established in Andalusia, and abounded in the city of Seville before the enterprise of Columbus was conceived.

Thus we see that slavery existed in Africa long before the time of the American slave trade—there are traces of it in the earliest Egyptian paintings and monuments—it is known to have existed in its most hideous forms since the time when Hanno, the Carthagenean navigator, found his way to the coasts of Guinea, and brought back with him to Carthage a cargo of Ourang-Outangs, which he took to be African men and women.

More than three-fourths of the negroes in Africa are slaves—such has been the condition of the masses of population from time immemorial.

The native slave trade was the result of the brutal, bloody, and savage character of the African tribes. They are described by travelers as being more cruel than the hyena, the tiger, or the lion. Richard Lander found them cowardly, treacherous and cruel, with the passions and appetites of wild beasts, devoid of natural affection for wives, children or friends. Blood, as wine with us, is their favorite and most honored drink. To inflict a wound, or even death, is an imperial luxury. They catch the blood as it spurts, and drink it in the presence of the victim, while yet alive and suffering. Eagerness to share in cruelty glows in the African's bosom as its highest pleasure. Their riches consist in the multitude of their wives and children. Reserving a few of the older males, the rest of the children are sold as slaves. A common habit is to emasculate them in part, to diminish the breed and save food.—Lander never saw a cheerful looking slave in Africa. They were all prematurely old, maimed, or diseased from harsh usage.

When a king, nobleman, or man of fortune, dies, his slaves and wives are invariably sacrificed. They are usually buried alive, amidst the most frightful shouts and screams. The king of Dahomy paves the approaches to his residence and the battlements of his palace with the skulls of his slaves and enemies. At the celebration of the "Yam Customs" every nobleman sacrificed a slave as he entered at the gate. Heads and skulls formed the ornaments of the procession. Hundreds were slain, and the blood of the butchered slaves was mixed with other and unclean substances in a huge brass vessel. The king's executioners during these customs, traverse the city, killing whom they choose.

Paganism the most loathsome and brutal in its forms, exists in Africa at this day, precisely as it existed in the days of Hanno and Alexander. Fetichism is the lowest form of pagan worship. Fetish signifies a charm or amulet. In Africa it is Bosson, which means God. Thus they convert a fish-bone, a stone, or feather, the skull of a monkey, the skin of a rat, in a word, the least trifle, into gods and worship them.

They nail these ridiculous gods to their doors, to drive away the devil and his imps. They worship a certain tree as Fetish, and

decorate its branches with the mutilated limbs of human sacrifices. They regard it as a solemn duty to worship the devil. "God," they say, "is naturally good, and will not trouble us, but the black spirit is wicked, and must be treated with deference and respect" —they, therefore, neglect God, and do every thing to propitiate the devil. They believe that the devil delights in human sacrifice; hence, acceptable offerings of human flesh are kept perpetually smoking upon the altars of the many temples of the devil. The priests sacrifice thousands of slaves upon almost every occasion of pagan ceremony.

Such is Africa, and such are her innumerable tribes stretching along the western coast, and extending into those vast interior and central regions that lie to the south of the great Sahara desert. We say nothing of the northern coasts of Africa because they have always been inhabited by Europeans or Asiatics.

This countless multitude of human beings dwelling under a tropical sun and upon a fertile soil, need no clothing to cover their bodies—scarcely use a fig-leaf to hide their shame—live on the spontaneous fruits of the earth or such as require a slight cultivation during a few weeks of the year—spending the remainder of their time basking in the sun, sleeping in the shade, or in wars, and wild and bloody sports—have not a sentiment of humanity—and possess an understanding that rises not above the level of the brute.

Such is the picture of Africa—it is not exaggerated—missionaries, travellers, history, and tradition confirm its truth. There may be slight exceptions, but this dark portrait is the figure of Africa, that is one day to stretch forth her hands and rejoice. But how is this joyful renovation to be accomplished? How are these savages to acquire the civilization—to lift themselves up from degradation, and take their place in the line of march, to fullfill the destiny of mankind. We believe that a Divine Providence governs the world—that by means of the great christian ideas which are the light and life of humanity, all men are to be brought in harmony with the Divine will. How are ignorant and savage tribes to be brought within the sphere and under the influence of ideas who are incapable of entertaining an idea, and whose dark understandings have not one opening or a crevice even through which a struggling ray might penetrate. This is the problem to be solved by the philanthropist and the philosopher. How were people like these to acquire ideas of God, religion, worship, church, government, the relation of husband and wife, and the sanctity of marriage, the relation of parent and child, and the duties of education—how were the conceptions of shame and modesty to be awakened in the soul of a naked being without which there is no chastity or virtue—how were they to acquire habits of labor of persevering industry, and wise forethought in providing for the necessities of life? It is obvious that without some dim conception of these

things and some influence however feeble exercised by them on the minds of the people, that no human society or government is possible. They are the elements of social organization, and without them, man is only a gregarious animal living in a perpetual state of fear and repugnance. This is the question. And it is plain that nothing in the past history of humanity can aid us in the solution. Never was there a race of men anywhere else on the globe so abject and so inaccessible to all means of education. Separated from the rest of the world by oceans, seas and deserts, their country is sure death to the white man. What to the African is a life-breathing atmosphere, is poison to every other human being. It is impossible, therefore, in their own country to teach them the arts of industry and the principles of truth. It is impossible for another reason—man cannot be made to labor where nature has abundantly supplied his wants without toil—nor can he be made to clothe himself merely for the sake of cherishing a sentiment of reserve and modesty where he feels no necessity for clothes as the means of protecting his body from the inclemency of the weather. The naked and idle savage has first to be made to cover his nakedness, and to exercise his hands diligently in some needful and productive labor, before a sentiment of humanity can be awakened in his bosom, or the first train of thought excited in his mind. And then this course will have to be persevered in from generation to generation, until the whole physical and craneal developments have been changed, before the simplest elements of civilization can be regarded as a permanent acquisition. It is an easy thing to lapse into barbarism, but to emerge from it requires a long and a toilsome effort.

We again put the question to the philanthropist and the philosopher—what was to be done with these African savages? The law of the progress of the human race required that they should fall into the line of progression, or be trampled down and extinguished. Humanity requires that the experiment should be made of forcing them into a course of improvement. But this improvement would not be successfully made without taking them from their own country, and subjecting them to a life of compulsory labor, where clothing is necessary to protect the body from the inclemency of the weather, and where continued industry and forethought is necessary to procure the means of subsistence.

The thing was done — and in its wonderful results we see the the hand of an allwise Providence.

ARTICLE V.

(From the American Railway Times.)

Railroads in Great Britain.—ANNUAL REPORT OF 1853.

The report of the proceedings of the railway department of the Board of Trade during the year 1853, by Captain Galton, R. E., has been issued.

The report states that the length of new lines of railway sanctioned by the Legislature in the United Kingdom during the year 1853 was 940 miles, which amount is very considerably greater than that sanctioned during any year since 1847. Of this amount 589 miles were in England, 80 miles in Scotland, and 271 miles in Ireland.

Among the most important of the new lines in England appear to be the following, viz: A line from Strood to Canterbury, by which the communication by railway along the south bank of the Thames will be rendered continuous as far as the North Foreland; the Portsmouth Railway, by which a direct communication will be afforded between Portsmouth and the metropolis; an extension of the Midland Railway from Leicester to Hitchin, on the Great Northern Railway, by which a second line of communication will be afforded from the midland districts to the metropolis; and the Worcester and Hereford Railway, by which a more direct route will be opened between the midland counties and South Wales.

In Ireland, the most important line would appear to be the Londonderry and Coleraine Railway, by which a direct route will be afforded between Belfast and Londonderry; and the Londonderry, Coleraine and Sligo Railway, which will afford a direct communication from Sligo to Londonderry, and to Dublin.

The total length of railway which has been authorised by Parliament to the end of 1853, is 12,688 miles. Of this number of miles, 7,686 have been opened for traffic, leaving 5,002 miles to be completed; but the compulsory powers of 2,838 miles have expired without being exercised, or the railways being opened to the end of 1853. The length of railways for the construction of which Parliamentary powers exist is 2,164 miles. The length of railway opened previously to December, 1843, was 2,036 miles. The length opened in the year 1844 was 204 miles; in 1845, 296 miles; in 1846, 606 miles; in 1847, 803 miles; in 1848, 1,182 miles; in 1849, 869 miles; in 1850, 625 miles; in 1851, 269 miles; in 1852, 446 miles; and in 1853, 350 miles, making the total length then opened 7,686 miles, of which 5,848 miles are in England, 995 in Scotland, and 843 miles in Ireland.

The length of the narrow gauge railway, including the Irish gauge of 5¼ feet, is 6,965 miles, of broad 626 miles, and of the mixed gauge 95 miles. The number of railway companies having

single lines of railway at the end of 1853 was 97, the length of single narrow gauge lines, including the Irish gauge, 1,543 miles, of broad gauge 112 miles, and of mixed gauge 53 miles — total 1,708 miles; of which 1,136 miles of single line are in England, 132 miles in Scotland, and 441 miles in Ireland.

Of the single line opened at the end of the year 1852, 32 miles 46 chains in England, and 51 miles 76 chains in Ireland, have been made double during the year 1853.

The total length of new line which was opened during the year 1853 amounted to 350 miles.

Of the lines opened in England, the principal ones are—the Oxford, Worcester, and Wolverhampton railway from Wolvercot to Evesham, by which the manufacturing districts near Birmingham, the town of Worcester, and the important agricultural districts between Worcester and Oxford are accommodated with a direct route to London; the Newport, Abergavenny, and Hereford railway, and the Shrewsbury and Hereford railway, by which a direct route is afforded from Birkenhead to South Wales; and the Thirsk and Malton, and Malton and Driffield railways by which railway communication is afforded to an important district in Yorkshire.

In Scotland, the only line of importance opened for traffic was the Deeside Railway. In Ireland, the most important lines are the Waterford and Kilkenny, and Waterford and Limerick Railways, by which Waterford has been connected with the Irish railway system; and the railway from Killarney to the Great Southern and Western Railway.

All these lines of railway were inspected previous to being opened for traffic by officers of this department, and your lordships required the opening to be postponed in twenty-eight instances. The total number of inspections which were required to be performed by the officers amounted to fifty-eight.

Of the railways opened during 1853, twenty-five portions of railway, representing a total length of 298 miles, consisted of single line; and it would appear that the length of single line open at the end of 1853, viz: 1,708 miles, was between one-fourth and one-fifth of the whole amount of railways open. It is to be observed that the length of single line open at the end of 1852 was 1,485 miles, and at the end of 1851, 1,307 miles. A single line of railway cannot be worked with safety, except under special regulations, so framed as to prevent the possibility of engines or trains moving in opposite directions, from meeting on the single line; such regulations are, however, inconsistent with a large amount of traffic.

In all cases of single lines opened during 1853, your lordships required generally either that the trains should be worked by means of one engine moving backwards and forwards over the line, or over particular portions of it; or that some particular man should be appointed to accompany the trains moving over the portions of

single line. And in cases where the electric telegraph is in use, the regulations required were that the persons employed to start trains should be distinctly responsible for ascertaining, before starting the trains, that the line is clear as far as the next station.

The amount of capital invested in railways at the end of 1852, was £264,165,680, of which £161,400,256 consisted of ordinary capital, £38,700,755 of preference capital, and £64,064,658 of loans. The amount of capital raised for railway purposes in 1849 was £29,574,720; in 1850, £10,522,967; in 1851, £7,970,151, and in 1852, £16,398,993; thus increasing the amount invested in railways at the end of 1849 from £229,747,779 to £264,165,-680 at the end of 1852. The amount of money which was raised by railway companies during 1853 has not yet been returned to Parliament; but it may be assumed not to have been less than that raised during 1852, and it is therefore probable that the whole sum raised by railway companies to the end of 1853 is not less than £281,000,000, of which about £42,000,000 may be assumed to have been preferential capital, and nearly £70,000,000 would appear to have been borrowed on the security of the undertakings.

The number of miles of railway in course of construction on the 30th June, 1853, was 682 miles, and the number of men employed on them was 37,764. The number of miles open for traffic at that date was 7,512, and the number of men employed 80,409. The number of men employed on railways open for traffic was 9.-15 per mile in 1852, and 10.7 per mile in 1853.

The total number of passengers conveyed on railways in the United Kingdom in the year 1853 amounted to 102,286,660; the number in 1852 had been 89,135,729. The total receipts from all sources of traffic amounted in 1853 to $18,035,879, and in 1852 to £15,710,554.

In England the mean length of line open during the year has been increased from 4,355.5 miles in 1849 to 5.730.5 miles in 1853, and the total number of passengers conveyed has increased from 49,879,362 in 1849 to 84,212,961 in 1853, being an increase of from 11,450 per mile in 1849 to 14,695 per mile in 1853. The numbers conveyed of each class bear very nearly the same relative proportion to each other in each year. In 1853 the number of first class passengers was 12.71 per cent., the number of second class was 37.8 per cent., and the number of third class was 49.42 per cent. of the whole number carried.

The receipts from passengers have increased from £5,446,518 in 1849 to £7,326,106 in 1853, being an increase of from £1,-255 per mile to £1,279 per mile (the amount received during 1851 having amounted to £1,330 per mile). The receipts per mile from each class in 1849 were—first class, £406; second class, £518; third class, £331. In 1853 the receipts per mile had di-

minished on the first and second class to £403 and £474 respectively, and had increased on the third class to £378.

But the most important feature is the steady progress made by the goods traffic of the country, and the apparent probability that in the course of a few years it will form a more important item in the income of railway companies than the passenger traffic.

The receipts from goods have increased from £4,750,504 in 1849, to £8,112,477 in 1853, being an increase of from £1,090 per mile in 1849 to £1,415 per mile in 1853; and whilst the receipts from passengers in 1849 were larger than the receipts from goods in the proportion of 53.42 to 46.58, in 1853 the contrary was the case, viz: the three per-centage of the passenger traffic was 47.45, and of the goods traffic 52.55.

In Scotland the progress of traffic on railways has been similar. The mean length of railway open during the year has increased from 795.5 miles, open in 1849, to 987 miles open in 1853. The number of passengers conveyed in 1849 amounted to 7,902,228, and in 1853 to 10,999,224, which represents 9.993 per mile in 1849 against 11,246 per mile in 1853. The relative number of passengers of each class conveyed would appear to have slightly varied, the number of first and third class passengers having increased, and the number of second class passengers having diminished, the number in 1849 being 729 first class passengers per mile, 2,035 second class passengers per mile, and 6,997 third class passengers per mile, against 1,107 first class, 1,971 second class, 8,165 third class passengers per mile in 1853. The receipts from passengers having increased from £540,770 to £697,712; or from £680 per mile in 1849 to £713 per mile in 1853; and the proportion of receipts from each class conveyed having been, in 1849, £149 per mile for first class, £196 per mile for second class, and £331 per mile for third class passengers, against £181 per mile from first class, £179 per mile from second class, and £345 per mile from third class passengers in 1853.

It would, therefore, appear that in Scotland the third class traffic preponderates considerably; both as regards numbers and receipts. There is also in the Scotch lines a preponderance in the receipts from goods traffic over the receipts from passenger traffic.

The amount received from goods in 1849 was £650,640, and in 1853 it was £1,068,016, representing £818 per mile in 1849, against £1,075 per mile in 1853. The relative proportions of the two descriptions of traffic were, in 1849, passenger traffic 45.38, and goods traffic 54.62; and in 1853 the receipts from goods traffic amounted to 60.48 per cent. of the whole traffic.

In Ireland the progress has also been marked, but a considerable increase has taken place in the number of miles open for traffic, which increase, (as was the case in this country a few years ago,) has been at a greater rate than the increase of the traffic, and hence the receipts per mile do not exhibit a similar progress.

The mean length of railway opened in the year 1849 was 428 miles, and in the year 1853 it was 771 miles.

The total number of passengers conveyed in 1849 amounted to 6,059,947, or 14,142 per mile; and in 1853 it amounted to 7,074,475, or 9,175 per mile. The increase in the number of passangers has taken place chiefly in the first and third classes, the number of second class passengers having diminished. The number of passengers of different classes per mile in 1849:—First class, 1,226; second class, 7,138, and third class, 5,776. The receipts from passengers have increased from £290,604 in 1849, to £537,259 in 1853; the receipts per mile having been £678 in 1849, and £696 in 1853, divided between the different classes in the following proportion in 1849:—First class, £150 per mile; second class, £273, and third class, £255; and in 1853, first class, £168; second class, £264, and third class, £251. The receipts for goods amounted, in 1849, to £127,462, and in 1853, to £294,810, equivalent to £297 per mile in 1853. The relative proportion of receipts from the two classes of traffic was, in 1849, 69.51 from passengers, and 30.49 from goods, and in 1853 it was 64.62 from passengers, and 35.38 from goods.

The general summary of the result is, that since the year 1849, whilst the number of miles over which the traffic is conveyed has increased 34 per cent., the number of passengers has increased 60 per cent., the receipts from passengers 36 per cent., or from £1,125 per mile in 1849 to £1,143 per mile in 1853; the receipts from goods have increased 71 per cent., or from £990 per mile in 1849 to £1,265 per mile in 1853; and the total receipts have increased nearly 53 per cent., or from £2,115 per mile in 1849, to £2,408 per mile in 1853. And the proportionate increase of the traffic of 1853 over that of 1852 was greater than that of 1850 over 1849.

It is worthy of remark, that as regards the passenger traffic, the proportionate increase in the number of the lower class of passengers conveyed by railway is greater than that of other classes, and the proportion which the receipts from that class bear to the receipts from other classes is greater for 1853 than it was for 1849.

The receipts from goods are also largely increasing, and they bear every year an increasing proportion to passenger traffic.

With respect to accidents, it appears that in 1852, 216 persons were killed and 486 injured on the railways in the United Kingdom out of a gross total of 89,135,729 passengers; of these persons 181 were killed and 413 were injured in England; 24 were killed and 71 injured in Scotland; and 11 were killed and 2 injured in Ireland. In the year 1853, out of a gross total of 102,286,660 passengers conveyed by the railways of the United Kingdom, 305 were killed and 449 injured; of these 243 were killed and 369 injured in England; 37 were killed and 68 injured in Scotland; and 25 were killed and 12 injured in Ireland.

It would appear that, in the year 1852, the proportion of the number of passengers killed and injured from causes beyond their own control to the total number of passengers carried on railways, reduced for the purposes of comparison to the standard of 1,000,000 was, in England, 14 killed and 4.3 injured per million passengers conveyed; in Scotland, none killed, but 5.8 injured per million; in Ireland, none killed, but 3.2 injured per million; and for the United Kingdom, the proportion of killed was .11, and of injured about 4.2 per one million of passengers conveyed.

But in the year 1853 the proportion of the number of accidents to the number of persons conveyed by railway was greater. For reducing the numbers to the same comparative standard of 1,000,000, the proportion of the number of passengers killed and injured from causes beyond their own control to the total number of passengers carried on railways in that year was, in England, 23 killed and 2.6 injured per million of passengers conveyed; in Scotland, .09 killed and 4.5 injured per million; and in Ireland, 2.4 killed and 1.6 injured in every million; whilst in the United Kingdom there would appear to have been .35 killed and 2.8 injured in every million of passengers conveyed by railway.

ARTICLE VI.

Memphis Navy Yard and Western Rivers.

While we cheerfully acknowledge that certain measures adopted by the late session of Congress—the establishment of the new territories and the graduation of the price of the public lands—are highly beneficial to the Western States, we are constrained to declare that, in our opinion, the more vital interests of this region have been not only neglected but actively opposed by the legislative and Executive departments of the government. The opposition to western interests was manifested on the part of Congress in refusing to make an appropriation in behalf of the Navy Yard at Memphis, and in failing to grant lands in aid of railroads; and, by the Executive in refusing to sanction the River and Harbor Bill.

We wish not to be understood as charging either department of the government, or any individual, even by implication, with a design, deliberately formed, to injure the Western States, and retard the development of their resources. But we affirm that by obstinately adhering to the policy of doing all to facilitate and encour-

age foreign trade, and nothing to aid the commerce of the interior, a commercial and financial monopoly has been fostered in the Eastern States materially affecting every branch of industry in the West, and absorbing, in no small degree, the profits of western labor.

The improvement of western rivers, and the establishment of a Navy Yard at Memphis, are to be regarded by the people of the Mississippi valley as objects of primary importance. The improvement of the rivers is necessary to enable us to resist the encroachments of the great commercial and financial monopoly of the east; while the establishment of the Navy Yard will compel the disbursement of at least a small portion of the public money west of the Alleghanies. These facts are understood and fully appreciated by eastern men, and hence their obstinate opposition to those measures.

The Navy Yard at Memphis should not be regarded as a local object: it is an important part of a western system of commerce and finance, and the most remote inhabitant of the Mississippi valley is interested in its establishment. We are gratified to learn that a portion of the citizens of Memphis have taken what we regard as a correct view of the subject. We trust they will finally and utterly refuse to accept of the public property upon the terms offered by Congress, and invoke the Valley States to unite in a vigorous effort to obtain the necessary appropriations to carry on the work.

Much has been said and published to disparage the policy of establishing a Navy Yard at a point so remote from the Gulf; and objections will doubtless continue to be urged against the location by those opposed to the interests of the Western States; but we are persuaded that every well informed unprejudiced mind must admit that the establishment of a Navy Yard at a suitable point west of Cape Sable is imparatively demanded, in a national point of view, as a means of defence, and that no other place combines as many advantages for such an establishment as Memphis. This location, we believe, was first suggested by Lieut. Maury; whose opinions touching naval affairs are entitled to as much respect as are those of any man of this age. The proposition was discussed before the nation for several years, and was finally adopted as a great national measure. But at that day the mercantile and financial classes of the east had not conceived the idea of

absorbing the entire commerce of the west through the agency of railroads. But regarding the Gulf of Mexico and the Mississippi as their great commercial highway to the Western States, it was natural that they should favor a measure calculated to protect the transit of commerce on that route. Their connection with the west by railroads presents the subject in a new light; and it is now their policy to oppose every measure calculated to facilitate the transportation of commerce on the Mississippi and its tributaries, or give security to its transit across the Gulf. Will the people of the Mississippi valley submit to this policy without an effort to resist it?

As additional evidence in favor of the location of a Navy Yard at Memphis as a means of national defence, and the advantages of that location in comparison with other places, we copy the following extract from a communication by Lieut. J. N. Brown, U. S. N., in answer to certain inquiries addressed to him by the citizens of Memphis.

U. S. Navy Yard,
Memphis, Aug. 28, 1854.

Gentlemen: I have received your letter of the 26th inst., requesting from me a "succinct statement of the advantages and importance to the nation at large, but more especially to the South and West, and to our Gulf defences, of a constructive Navy Yard at Memphis."

While I am convinced that I cannot do justice to the subject, I will try to answer, briefly, to the spirit of your letter.

It seems to me that Memphis offers "advantages to the nation," for a constructive Navy Yard, from the fact that it is situated in the very center of the greatest supply of materials for ship building in the known world. These materials can be drawn together here at less cost, perhaps, than to any other point in the Union.

Memphis has also the advantage over every other proposed building point, of being, under all circumstances, inaccessible to an enemy; hence materials which are not "perishable," or which may be preserved for years, could here be safely accumulated. Memphis is also nearer the shores of the "Mexican Gulf," than any of our Atlantic Navy Yards; it presents too in its superior climate advantages as a building station over either the extreme North or South. In whatever enters into warlike preparations, calculations should be based upon the contingency of actual war. In time of war with an enemy superior to the United States at sea, the Memphis Navy Yard is the only one which could readily, and safely, draw to itself, by water transportation, every thing requisite for building and equipping ships or steamers. In point of economy

this would be a most decided "advantage," many of the materials for ship building being so unwieldly as almost to preclude their being transported by land. These are some of the advantages which, it occurs to me, "Memphis presents as a constructive Navy Yard," in a national point of view.

To the South and West its importance seems the greater, the more we reflect upon the subject. In time of war, the Pensacola Navy Yard could not certainly be relied on, either as a place for building or repairing ships; because though the entrance to Pensacola Bay is well guarded, the fortifications are there so placed as to offer little defence against a land attack upon the Navy Yard.

With such a fleet as the English now have in the Baltic, acting on the Gulf against us, nothing less than an army, outside of the forts, could save the Pensacola Navy Yard from destruction—and that Yard destroyed, we should have from the capes of Virginia to the mouth of the Del Norte, two thousand or more miles of Southern coast, without the means of building or equipping ships of war. Memphis "as a constructive Yard," is important to the South and West, from the consideration that without it, our whole coasting trade on the Gulf, throughout a protracted war, might be destroyed at no greater cost to the enemy than keeping three or four small steamers in commission there, because the Atlantic ports being blockaded, no vessels could escape from them, or if they could, an enemy's squadron off the Bahamas, would divert them from a course toward the Gulf. It is true that even with every facility here for building ships we might have this trade for a time destroyed, but we should then, at least, compel the enemy to do this work at some cost to himself as well as to us.

A New Style of Bricks.—Amongst the more recent inventions patented by English manufacturers perhaps the most important and interesting is that by Mr. Summerfield, of the Glass Works, Birmingham Heath, for what are termed chromatic glass, or glass-faced grooved bricks. It has already attracted the attention of several eminent architects and builders, and there is little doubt this new description of brick will come into extensive use. By Mr. Summerfield's process, red or other clay can be combined with class, and this will secure durability, entire resistance to moisture, and give an ornamental appearance to the building. The form of the brick is also, by means of a groove at the side and end, made so as to add greatly to the strength of the erection, the joints by this means being brought nearly close together, forming a neat exterior, and the morter acts as a wedge, from the shape of the groove.—[*Railroad Record.*]

COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement of tonnage entered into each State and Territory from July 1, 1852, to June 30, 1853.

STATES.	TONNAGE ENTERED INTO THE UNITED STATES.											
	AMERICAN.				FOREIGN.				TOTAL AMERICAN & FOREIGN.			
	Number.	Tons.	Crews.		Number.	Tons.	Crews.		Number.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Maine	468	129,037	4,066	1	845	60,991	4,545	12	1,313	190,028	8,611	13
New Hampshire	6	871	34	.....	38	3,794	215	26	44	4,665	249	26
Vermont	296	15,669	639	6	84	4,892	285	4	380	20,561	924	10
Massachusetts	1,248	363,451	14,755	33	2,929	360,723	17,669	68	4,177	724,174	32,424	101
Rhode Island	70	13,046	622	3	53	7,763	374	.....	123	20,809	996	3
Connecticut	107	23,432	1,228	65	61	9,153	405	.....	168	32,585	1,633	65
New York	5,261	2,606,159	88,197	1,168	5,601	1,119,176	70,071	1,336	10,862	3,725,335	158,268	2,504
New Jersey	.....	.....	.....	.....	24	2,847	133	.....	24	2,847	133	.....
Pennsylvania	426	130,972	4,794	18	163	52,972	2,431	1	589	183,944	7,225	19
Maryland	284	73,188	2,714	.....	187	45,901	1,843	.....	471	119,089	4,557	.....
District of Columbia	7	1,310	51	.....	3	781	47	.....	10	2,091	98	.....
Virginia	83	21,269	796	.....	111	23,662	1,036	.....	194	44,931	1,832	.....
North Carolina	119	15,052	744	.....	38	6,398	277	.....	157	21,450	1,021	.....
South Carolina	126	49,176	1,849	.....	148	45,954	1,922	.....	274	95,130	3,771	.....
Georgia	49	14,560	499	.....	67	37,615	1,564	.....	116	52,175	2,063	.....
Florida	130	36,680	1,618	.....	37	10,865	496	.....	167	47,545	2,114	.....
Alabama	51	25,769	701	45	86	54,053	1,608	88	137	79,822	2,309	133
Louisiana	677	321,658	10,864	.....	422	191,154	6,849	.....	1,099	512,812	17,713	.....
Ohio	309	37,018	1,747	.....	85	9,370	620	.....	394	46,388	2,367	.....
Michigan	8	1,415	81	.....	262	85,140	3,848	.....	270	86,555	3,929	.....
Illinois	8	2,130	82	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8	2,130	82	.....
Texas	6	1,940	88	.....	33	6,599	304	1	39	8,539	392	1
California	216	120,211	6,922	.....	444	137,817	6,498	.....	660	258,028	13,420	.....
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	310	13	.....	1	310	13	.....
Total	9,955	4,004,013	143,091	1,339	11,722	2,277,930	123,053	1,536	21,677	6,281,943	266,144	2,875

A condensed view of the Tonnage of the several Districts of the United States, on June 30, 1853.

DISTRICTS.	Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage.	Total tonnage of each district.
	Tons and 95ths.		
Passamaquoddy ..... Maine	12,511 29	17,020 80	29,532 14
Machias ..... do	3,330 56	33,851 21	37,181 77
Frenchman's Bay ..... do	2,761 79	36,664 73	39,426 57
Penobscot ..... do	5,902 93	39,821 27	45,724 25
Belfast ..... do	17,884 52	38,537 81	56,422 38
Bangor ..... do	11,364 75	22,861 45	34,226 25
Waldoborough ..... do	47,967 70	65,455 85	103,423 69
Wiscasset ..... do	6,101 38	14,781 41	20,882 79
Bath ..... do	101,707 88	27,758 08	129,466 01
Portland ..... do	75,808 94	28,541 87	104,350 86
Saco ..... do	1,404 08	3,646 50	5,050 58
Kennebunk ..... do	11,458 00	3,620 25	15,078 25
York ..... do	.....	1,660 72	1,660 72
Portsmouth .... New Hampshire	17,747 03	8,898 33	26,645 36
Burlington ..... Vermont	.....	5,875 04	5,875 04
Newburyport .... Massachusetts	22,323 24	9,445 60	31,768 84
Ipswich ..... do	.....	367 38	367 38
Gloucester ..... do	3,228 03	27,689 91	30,917 94
Salem ..... do	20,596 72	9,874 84	30,461 61
Beverly ..... do	.....	4,049 43	4,049 43
Marblehead ..... do	697 60	6,371 27	7,071 87
Boston ..... do	396,049 41	54,443 48	450,492 89
Plymouth ..... do	2,118 33	9,340 13	11,458 46
Fall River ..... do	3,737 24	11,565 67	15,302 91
New Bedford ..... do	146,111 12	9,519 13	155,630 25
Barnstable ..... do	7,604 12	71,144 05	78,748 17
Edgartown ..... do	5,579 52	2,191 32	7,770 84
Nantucket ..... do	23,512 80	2,727 40	26,240 25
Providence ..... Rhode Island	7,682 74	8,678 68	16,361 47
Bristol ..... do	10,467 56	2,379 89	12,847 50
Newport ..... do	6,949 42	4,997 56	11,947 06
Middleton ..... Connecticut	.....	15,679 93	15,679 93
New London ..... do	23,665 82	19,726 31	43,392 18
Stonington ..... do	14,756 25	9,585 45	24,341 70
New Haven ..... do	7,708 05	14,895 41	22,603 46
Fairfield ..... do	1,570 23	24,553 61	26,123 84
Champlain ..... New York ..	.....	8,742 44	8,742 44
Sackett's Harbor ..... do	.....	7,156 31	7,156 31
Oswego ..... do	.....	30,213 16	30,213 16
Niagara ..... do	.....	571 03	571 03
Genesee ..... do	.....	1,327 12	1,327 12
Oswegatchie ..... do	.....	3,042 60	3,042 60
Buffalo Creek ..... do	.....	65,184 75	65,184 75
Sag Harbor ..... do	8,787 11	3,930 85	12,718 01
Greenport ..... do	3,812 84	5,955 09	9,767 93
New York ..... do	667,792 74	481,340 24	1,149,133 03
Cape Vincent ..... do	.....	5,016 20	5,016 20
Cold Spring ..... do	1,452 14	136 92	1,589 11
Perth Amboy .... New Jersey ..	.....	23,685 10	23,685 10
Bridgetown ..... do	.....	15,546 23	15,546 23
Burlington ..... do	.....	13,281 00	13,281 00
Camden ..... do	.....	9,558 79	9,558 79
Newark ..... do	.....	8,470 80	8,470 80
Little Egg Harbor .... do	.....	7,360 11	7,360 11
Great Egg Harbor .... do	.....	18,599 40	18,599 40
Philadelphia ..... Pennsylvania	72,712 48	179,738 11	252,451 59
Presque Isle ..... do	.....	6,921 09	6,921 09
Pittsburgh ..... do	.....	79,361 75	79,361 75
Wilmington ..... Delaware ..	.....	9,241 20	9,241 20
New Castle ..... do	.....	4,023 01	4,023 01

A condensed view of the Tonnage, &c.—Continued.

DISTRICTS.	Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage.	Total tonnage of each district.
	Tons and 95ths.		
Baltimore.....Maryland..	92,772 46	65,705 14	158,478 60
Oxford.....do.....	.....	13,056 40	13,056 40
Vienna.....do.....	131 35	17,825 87	17,957 27
Snow Hill.....do.....	.....	8,609 11	8,609 11
St. Mary's.....do.....	.....	3,171 30	3,171 30
Town Creek.....do.....	.....	1,948 29	1,948 29
Annapolis.....do.....	62 10	2,803 01	2,865 11
Georgetown..District of Col.	2,738 51	29,655 21	32,393 72
Alexandria.....Virginia..	3,008 11	8,777 75	11,785 86
Norfolk.....do.....	9,864 57	17,264 94	27,129 56
Petersburg.....do.....	397 38	1,803 60	2,201 03
Richmond.....do.....	4,720 69	6,739 34	11,460 08
Yorktown.....do.....	.....	5,699 79	5,699 79
Tappahannock.....do.....	294 33	4,134 05	6,383 38
Accomac Court House do.....	.....	5,240 55	5,240 55
East River.....do.....	.....	1,648 20	1,648 20
Yeocomico.....do.....	.....	3,709 40	3,709 40
Cherrystone.....do.....	.....	970 86	970 86
Wheeling.....do.....	.....	9,429 79	9,429 79
Wilmington...North Carolina	11,714 22	8,583 84	20,298 11
Washington.....do.....	1,867 12	6,119 07	7,986 19
Newbern.....do.....	1,447 93	3,973 08	5,421 06
Edenton.....do.....	302 06	1,331 47	1,633 53
Camden.....do.....	951 59	11,586 67	12,538 31
Beaufort.....do.....	550 25	1,830 33	2,380 58
Plymouth.....do.....	2,454 43	2,057 43	4,511 86
Ocracoke.....do.....	.....	1,604 62	1,604 62
Charleston....South Carolina	21,977 38	20 676 26	42,653 64
Georgetown.....do.....	2,229 42	1,904 21	4,133 63
Savannah.....Georgia....	12,059 54	8,535 83	20,595 42
Brunswick.....do.....	221 32	839 31	1,060 63
St. Mary's.....do.....	160 24	314 60	474 84
Pensacola.....Florida....	670 14	1,648 32	2,318 46
St. Marks.....do.....	805 68	127 29	933 02
St. Johns.....do.....	199 22	251 58	450 80
Appalachicola.....do.....	.....	2,127 60	2,127 60
Key West.....do.....	4,377 74	1,919 58	6,297 37
Pearl River.....Mississippi .	.....	2,340 70	2,340 70
New Orleans.....Louisiana..	84,099 55	69,085 33	153,184 88
Teche.....do.....	.....	3,089 73	3,089 73
Nashville.....Tennessee..	.....	3,414 33	3,414 33
Memphis.....do.....	.....	1,404 19	1,404 19
Louisville.....Kentucky..	.....	12,166 32	12,166 32
St Louis.....Missouri..	.....	45,441 03	45,441 03
Chicago.....Illinois....	.....	27,015 75	27,015 75
Cuyahoga.....Ohio.....	.....	43,491 83	43,491 83
Sandusky.....do.....	.....	6,028 92	6,028 92
Cincinnati.....do.....	.....	10,191 41	10,191 41
Miami.....do.....	.....	4,620 88	4,620 88
Milwaukie.....Wisconsin..	.....	10,009 60	10,009 60
Detroit.....Michigan..	.....	43,758 79	43,758 79
Michilimackinac....do.....	.....	2,154 05	2,154 05
Galveston.....Texas....	1,694 59	4,481 53	6,176 17
Point Isabel.....do.....	.....	694 16	694 16
San Francisco....California..	55,534 10	42,165 34	97,699 44
Sonoma.....do.....	1,690 87	613 72	2,304 64
Sacramento.....do.....	629 58	3,575 51	4,205 14
Astoria.....Oregon....	1,063 43	.....	1,063 43
New Albany.....Indiana...	.....	3,843 69	3,843 69
Total.....	2,103,674 20	2,303,336 23	4,407,010 43

Statement showing the number and class of vessels built and the tonnage thereof in each State and Territory of the United States during the year ending June 30, 1853.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	CLASS OF VESSELS.					Total no. of vessels built.	TOTAL TONNAGE.
	Ships & barques.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Sloops and canal boats.	Steamers.		Tons and 95ths.
Maine	132	70	133	10	7	351	118,916 67
New Hampshire	9	....	1	....	....	10	8,666 11
Vermont	....	....	2	....	....	2	218 33
Massachusetts	73	1	126	3	2	205	83,015 15
Rhode Island	6	....	5	....	....	11	3,170 52
Connecticut	4	....	37	21	5	67	9,022 20
New York	21	6	85	103	74	289	83 224 05
New Jersey	....	....	30	22	6	58	7,107 71
Pennsylvania	1	4	28	102	56	191	31,539 07
Delaware	....	1	11	19	2	33	4,435 64
Maryland	15	9	97	....	1	122	16,901 38
District of Columbia	....	....	....	42	....	42	2,743 64
Virginia	3	1	11	14	11	40	6,599 20
North Carolina	....	1	16	3	2	22	1,746 36
South Carolina	....	....	24	13	1	38	1,993 87
Louisiana	....	....	9	4	4	17	1,346 12
Tennessee	....	....	....	....	1	1	45 17
Missouri	....	....	1	10	11	22	3,583 60
Kentucky	....	....	....	1	29	30	8,592 09
Illinois	....	....	7	2	....	9	1,158 35
Wisconsin	1	1	10	2	....	14	2,422 39
Ohio	4	....	28	23	35	90	21,213 36
Michigan	....	1	20	....	14	35	4,304 63
California	....	....	....	....	2	2	150 57
Indiana	....	....	....	....	9	9	3,455 81
Total	265	95	681	394	271	1710	425,572 49

F. BIGGER, Register.

Treasury Department, Register's Office, December 5, 1853.

Statement showing the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof in the several States and Territories of the U. S. from 1815 to 1853 inclusive.

Years.	CLASS OF VESSELS.					Total No. of vessels built.	TOTAL TONNAGE.
	Ships and barques	Brigs.	Schooners.	Sloops and canal boats.	Steamers.		Tons and 95ths.
1815	136	244	680	274	.....	1,314	154,624 39
1816	76	122	781	424	.....	1,403	131,668 04
1817	34	86	559	394	.....	1,075	86,393 37
1818	53	85	428	332	.....	898	82,421 20
1819	53	82	473	242	.....	850	79,817 86
1820	21	60	301	152	.....	534	47,784 01
1821	43	89	248	127	.....	507	55,856 01
1822	64	131	260	168	.....	623	75,346 93
1823	55	127	260	165	15	622	75,007 57
1824	56	156	377	166	26	781	90,939 00
1825	56	197	538	163	35	994	114,997 25
1826	71	187	482	227	45	1,012	126,438 35
1827	55	153	464	211	38	934	104,342 67
1828	73	108	474	196	33	884	98,375 58
1829	44	68	485	145	43	785	77,098 65
1830	25	56	403	116	37	637	58,094 24
1831	72	95	416	94	34	711	85,962 68
1832	132	143	568	122	100	1,065	144,539 16
1833	144	169	625	185	65	1,188	161,626 36
1834	98	94	497	180	68	937	118,330 37
1835	25	50	302	100	30	507	46,238 52
1836	93	65	444	164	124	890	113,627 49
1837	67	72	507	168	135	949	122,987 22
1838	66	79	501	153	90	898	113,135 44
1839	83	89	439	122	125	858	120,989 34
1840	97	109	378	224	64	872	118,309 23
1841	114	101	310	157	78	762	118,893 71
1842	116	91	273	404	137	1,021	129,083 64
1843	58	34	138	173	79	482	63,617 77
1844	73	47	204	279	163	766	103,537 29
1845	124	87	322	342	163	1,038	146,018 02
1846	100	164	576	355	225	1,420	188,203 93
1847	151	168	689	392	198	1,598	243,732 67
1848	254	174	701	547	175	1,851	318,075 54
1849	198	148	623	370	208	1,547	256,577 47
1850	247	117	547	290	159	1,360	272,218 54
1851	211	65	522	326	233	1,367	298,203 60
1852	255	79	584	267	259	1,444	351,493 41
1853	269	95	681	394	271	1,710	425,572 49

F. BIGGER, Register.

Treasury Department, Register's Office, December 5, 1853.

Statement of the national character of foreign vessels which entered into and cleared from the U. S. for foreign countries during the year ending June 30, 1853.

National character of the vessels.	ENTERED.				CLEARED.			
	No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Russian	10	3,677	149	....	8	2,993	110	.....
Prussian	54	19,356	730	....	55	19,710	645	.....
Swedish	138	41,539	1,710	2	144	44,959	1,567	3
Danish	70	14,595	691	....	66	14,517	631	.....
Hanseatic	343	142,204	5,046	1	332	136,728	4,927	3
Dutch	58	17,511	735	....	65	20,529	739	.....
Belgian	20	6,524	269	2	22	8,266	283	2
Mecklenburg	12	3,439	133	....	13	3,927	139	.....
Oldenburg	40	12,020	473	....	31	9,260	340	.....
Hanoverian	21	4,638	200	....	20	4,145	173	.....
British	10,359	1,871,210	105,406	1,515	10,323	1,889,818	104,239	1,533
French	105	28,813	1,379	1	95	25,907	1,176	1
Spanish	156	41,836	2,003	15	171	45,677	2,198	17
Portuguese	24	4,709	252	....	23	4,644	230	.....
Sicilian	59	14,332	653	....	57	13,951	650	.....
Sardinian	28	8,118	389	....	33	9,113	435	.....
Tuscan	1	210	13	....	1	210	13	.....
Austrian	10	4,420	194	....	12	5,896	182	.....
Turkish	1	231	10	....	1	231	10	.....
Italian	2	463	22	....	3	619	25	.....
Haytien	1	162	8	....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Mexican	78	6,976	632	....	81	7,410	621	1
Central Amer.	2	339	15	....	1	163	12	.....
New Grenad.	3	1,111	46	....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Venezuelan	7	1,051	60	....	6	906	60	.....
Brazilian	5	1,243	55	....	5	1,243	57	.....
Cisplatine	1	218	9	....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Chilian	68	18,686	907	....	64	17,908	799	.....
Peruvian	17	3,346	195	....	21	5,163	250	.....
Chinese	2	778	31	....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ecuadorian	1	243	18	....	1	243	13	.....
Lubec	7	1,716	74	....	7	1,897	71	.....
Hawaiian	16	2,306	154	....	17	2,363	133	.....
Tahitian	2	214	22	....	1	89	11	.....
Pontifical	1	196	10	....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nondescript	.....	.....	.....	....	1	305	12	.....
Total	11,722	2,277,930	123,053	1,536	11,680	2,298,790	120,754	1,560

F. BIGGER, Register.

Treasury Department, Register's Office, February 7, 1854.

From the N. O. Com. Bulletin.

SUGAR TRADE AND SUGAR CROP OF LOUISIANA.

The stock of Sugar remaining on hand, in the city and on plantation, on the 1st September last, was estimated at 8,000 hhds. against 3,000 at the commencement of the previous year. The prospects of the growing crop were higly favorable, the ratoon cane was generally remarkably fine, and as there had been a considerable extension of the culture by increased planting in nearly all the Sugar parishes, it was anticipated that the yield would even exceed the previous crop, which was the largest on record. These expectations, as will be seen by our further remarks, have been fully realized. The ruling rates on the Levee during the first week of September, were 4@4¼ c. for Fair, against 5¼@5¾ c. at the corresponding date in 1852, and although the supply exceeded the demand, so that it became necessary before the close of the month, to reduce the stock by liberal shipments to the Atlantic ports and to the West, yet prices, instead of giving way, slightly appreciated, and early in October, Fair ruled at 4¼@4½ c. At this period, October 6, we chronicled the first receipts of the new crop, which was three days earlier than in 1852. They comprised 4 hhds. which were sold from the Levee at 6 c. There were further receipts from the 10th to the 15th, and the prospect of a liberal supply of new gradually depressed the prices of old, until by the close of October, Fair had declined to 3¾@4 c. Early in November, there was a further decline, and at the close of the quarter our figures for Fair were reduced to 3⅛@3¾ c., while there was even a greater decline in the inferior qualities. The operations on the Levee during this period, show the gradual opening of the market, the sales comprising 1,700 hhds. in September, 3,300 in October and 19,000 in November, making an aggregate of 24,100 hhds. against 22,500 during the corresponding period in 1852; the receipts 1,800 hhds. in September, 3,200 in October, and 23,000 in November, making an aggregrte of 28,-100 hhds. against 26,900 hhds. in 1852, and the exports 430 hhds. in September, 1,400 hhds. in October, and 4,600 in November, an aggregate of 6,430 against 5,900. Early in December, the market gave way still further, and towards the latter part of the month, Fair sunk to 3⅛@3½ c., when it rallied, and in a few days advanced to 3½ @3¾c., after which, for more than a month it exhibited little or no variation. During a considerable portion of this period the demand for the West ran principally on Fair to Prime, while Inferior to Common were in request for the North. By the early part of February there had been a large accumulation of stock, and the supplies exceeding the demand, Fair receded to 3@3½ c., after which it again rallied and reached 3¼@3¾ c., which continued to be the ruling rates until the latter part of March, when it declined to 3@3½ c., the falling off, moreover, being even greater in the lower qualities. This downward tendency continued in April, and in the latter part of the month Fair fell to 2¾@3⅝ c., and subsequently to 2¾@3¼, which was the lowest point of the season. Even before, however, it had reached the minimum rate, it was believed to leave a margin for foreign export, and about 2,000 hhds. were taken for Great Britain, with some small parcels for European ports. As we understand that these proved successful, they may serve as an indication, to what point, under greater facilities for shipment, the staple must decline to enable it to enter

the foreign markets without loss—a question of some interest as it is now obvious, that with the additional impulse that must be impar'ed to the culture by the Opelousas Railroad from the reclamation of swamp lands, and the opening of new plantations in districts hitherto, for all practical purposes, inaccessible from market, the yield may be increased to an amount exceeding the demand for our home supply, in which case the surplus must either be exported, or bearing upon the market, press down prices, under the invariable law of supply and demand, to a ruinous point. There was no improvement in May, excepting in the higher qualities, which recovered ¼ c. of the previous decline. The following table shows the movement of the market with regard to receipts and sales during the seven months ending in May compared with the corresponding period last year.

	1853—1854.		1852—1853.	
	Sales.	Receipts.	Sales.	Receipts.
November	19,000	23,000	19,500	24,500
December	30,000	37,500	36,250	40,500
January	25,500	33.750	38,750	43,750
February	37,000	44,500	24,500	25,000
March	45,000	54,250	16,500	19,500
April	34,500	38,000	9,000	11,250
May	18,000	20,000	9,500	10,500
	209,000	2 51,000	154,000	17. ,000

In comparing these figures, we find that while in 1852 the heaviest receipts were in December and January, in the past year they were in February and March, and so also with regard to the sales. We also find that the receipts during these seven months show an excess of 76,000 hhds., and exports of 51,000, the sales of 55,000. During the past three months, operations have been on a more limited scale, but still with regard to quantity, bear the same favorable comparison with last year's, the sales comprising 7,100 hhds. in June against 4,250 last year, 5,700 in July against 1,600, and 1,750 in August against 750. The receipts for these three months are 18,500 hhds. against 9.000 last year. The entire receipts of the year are 274,650 hhds. against 186,-000 in 1852-3, and 141,000 in 1851-2, and the exports 174,850 against 78,850 in 1852-3,and 50,800 in1851-2. The seinclude the greater part of the exports fromAttakapas, and show when compared wi'h last year, an increase of 54,150 to New York [100,650 against 46,500] 9,300 to Philadelphia [20,500 against 11,200]; 5,850 to Baltimore [16,800 against 10,950]; and to other ports 5,300 [36,900 against 31,600].

The actual crop is set down in Mr. Champomier's Annual Statement at 449,324 hhds., which comprises 366,767 hhds. brown made by the old process, and 82,657 Refined, Clarified, Cistern, &c., and the weight is estimated at 495,156,000 lbs. This does not include the Texas crop, which is stated to have been 8,288 hhds. of 1,000 lbs. each, or nearly 3,000 hhds. less than the previous year. The number of Sugarhouses in Louisiana, is stated by Mr. Champomier to be 1,-437, embracing 431 worked by horse power [a decrease compared with last year of 57], and 956 by steam power [an increase of 13], showing a continued tendency to substitute the more economical and productive agent of steam for the old inefficient mode.

The amount remaining on hand in the city and State, is estimated at 7,500 hhds.

The following is the actual or estimated yield for the past eleven years, and exhibits an irregular but heavy increase in the product.

Crop of	Hhds.	Crop of	Hhds.
1843–4 . . .	100,000	1849–50 . . .	248,000
184 –5 . . .	200,000	1850–1 . . .	211,200
184 –6 . . .	187,000	1851–2 . . .	236,500
1846–7 . . .	150,000	1852–3 . . .	321,934
1847–8 . . .	240,000	1853–4 . . .	449,324
1848–9 . . .	220,000		

The amount of the increase is forcibly illustrated by taking the average of the crops for every five years during the twenty preceding the last year.

Total crops from	1833 to '37	inclusive,	340,000	hhds,	average	68,000
"	1838 to '42	"	502,000	"	"	100,400
"	1843 to '47	"	877,000	"	"	175,400
"	1848 to '52	"	1,237,700	"	"	247,500
"	1853 to '54	"	439,324	"	"	———

The following table compiled from the Register's Report on the Commerce and Navigation of the U. S., shows the quantity of sugar imported from all countries for five years ending June 30, 1853.

		Brown.	White Clayed Powdered.	Loaf and other refined.
Year ending June 30,	1849,	253,815,485 lbs.	5,103,741,	400,015
" "	1850,	197,661,819 "	19,977,312,	796,219
" "	1851,	367,537,861 "	4,786,437,	12,077,926
" "	1852,	450,312,593 "	6,461,540,	736,958
" "	1853,	456,510,627 "	7,108,932,	871,105

From the N. O. Com. Bulletin of Sept. 1st, 1845.

THE COFFEE TRADE.

The stock of Rio Coffee in first and second hands at New Orleans on the 1st September last was 72,200 bags, and the ruling rates for Prime were 10@10¼c., which was a material advance on previous rates, the average of the previous month being 9c., and both the foreign and the domestic accounts being favorable, prices continued their upward tendency until February, when the market took an unfavorable turn and continued to recede until the latter part of July, since which, under the influence of a greatly diminished stock it has gradually improved, and closed yesterday at 10½@11¼c. for Fair to Prime, against 9¼@9½ on the 15th of July. The stock remaining on hand is 6500 bags Rio and 2000 mostly Havana.—The following particulars of the crop for the year ending July 1st, we extract from the annual circular issued on that date, by Mr. H. T. Lonsdale, Coffee Broker:

	July 1, '51, to July 1, '52.	July 1, '52, to July 1, '53.	July 1, '53, to July 1, '54.
Imports direct from Rio,..... bags	325,957	354,515	241,778
" coastwise of Rio,..... "	34,821	26,370	29,862
" direct from Cuba, etc. "	12,562	10,628	11,595
Bags.....	383,340	381,513	283,235

Decrease of imports at this port this year compared with 1851–52..... bags 90,105
Increase do do do 1852–3 98,278
Sales Rio Coffee for the year ending July 1st, 1852..... 371,278
" " " " 1st, 1853..... 322,146
" " " " 1st, 1854..... 323,930
Decrease sales for consumption this year compared with 1851–2..... 47,348
do do do do 1852–3 1,784
Stock of Rio in importers hands..... 29,056
" " speculators' hands..... None.
" other descriptions..... 2,500—31,556
Same the last year..... 86,346

Decrease of stock this year..... 54,790
Stock on hand July 1st, 1853..... 81,346
Arrived during the season direct..... 241,778
coastwise..... 29,268

352,986
Stock on hand this day..... 29,056

Taken for consumption..... 323,930
Same time previous year..... 322,146

Increase of sales for consumption in 1853–4..... 1,784

Sales and Average Prices of Coffee for Past Year.

1853, July	15,597	8.75	1854, Feb	38,148	10.70
August	10,746	8.84	March	54,006	10.24
Sept	26,873	8.93	April	54,520	9.47
Oct	12,479	10.86	May	87,079	9.67
Nov	61,921	10.60	June	24,573	9.22
Dec	36,100	11.40			
1854, Jan	26,675	10.63		398,736	10.13

Average price of Rio Coffee in 1852–3..... 8.95
" " " 1851–2..... 8.60

The above sales include the transactions from importers and speculators' hands, and exceed the sales for consumption by 74,906 bags.

Exports of Coffee to the United States from Rio de Janeiro from May 1, 1853, *to May* 1, 1854.

To New Orleans	241,791	To various other ports,	25,002
To New York	203,613		
To Baltimore	190,165	Total to U. S. in '53-4,	788,043
To Philadelphia	111,792	" " '52-3,	1,066,311
To Boston	4,229	" " '51-2,	907,424
To Charleston	11,451		

Decrease of exports from Rio to U. S. this year compared with 1852–3 278,268
do do do do 1851–2 119,381

Total export from Rio to all parts of the world, from
May 1, 1853, to May 1, 1854 1,599,928
May 1, 1852, to May 1, 1853 1,968,625
May 1, 1851, to May 1, 1852 1,825,779

Estimated stock of Coffee on hand in Rio, May 1, 1854... 60,000

Stock of Coffee on hand at all the importing ports of the United States is estimated at this day 143,000
Same period last year 230,000

Decrease of stock this year in United States 87,000

Sales for consumption in the U. S. in 1851–2 845,000
" " " 1852–3 966,000
" " " 1853–4 875,043

Decrease of sales for consumption this year compared with 1852–3 90,957
Increase do do do 1851–2 30,043

Quuantity of Coffee imported into the United States from all Countries for five years ending June 30th 1853. Compiled from the Registers Report:

For the year ending June 30th, 1849 ..... lb165,334,700
" " " 1850 144,986,895
" " " 1851 152,453,617
" " " 1852 193,698,556
" " " 1853 199,089,823

Commercial Aspect of California.—High Rents, Price of Flour, Wheat, &c.

Since the year 1849 the productions of California have so much affected the industry and commerce of the nation, that the changes which occur in the financial condition of that State are not less interesting to the States east of the Rocky Mountains, than those

which may take place in Great Britain and all Europe combined. Hence no sound estimate can be made of the commercial and financial prospects of the country at large without a correct knowledge of the industry, productions and commerce of California.

Great as the productions of California have been and yet are, they cannot long continue to support the spirit of speculation which they have excited in every part of the country. It is fair to conclude that the production of gold has reached its maximum, and it now remains to be tested whether the prices of labor and property, the excessive trading in merchandize, and the prosecution of our immence projects of public improvements can be sustained, even though there should be no material decline in the production of gold.

We copy the following articles on the "Existing Commercial Depression," "High Rent," &c. from the *Placer Times and Transcript* of 1st inst. And in connection with this subject it affords us pleasure to remark that, the commercial and financial articles of the Placer Times and Transcript are uniformly distinguished by a degree of ability and honesty of purpose which we have but rarely met with in any other commercial paper.

THE EXISTING COMMERCIAL DEPRESSION.

Though we have so often referred to the discouraging aspect of mercantile affairs during a period of many consecutive months, at no time, perhaps within a year past, have business prospects looked more gloomy than at present. It is plain to the most casual observer that this state of things arises, not so much from a decreased rate of consumption of merchandise, but is mainly attributable to large and inordinate supplies, and a greatly increased number of persons engaged in mercantile pursuits.

It is useless to look forward to better times while at least one-sixth of the entire population of the State is engaged in trade, and controlling a quantity of goods adequate to the wants of our population for a year to come. That prices renumerative either to the shipper or trader, could exist under such circumstances, is impossible. Low prices must rule, until both are convinced that fewer goods and fewer dealers are sufficient to meet the requirements of the country.

Experience, in many instances entailing ruin, must alone teach what reason and argument have failed to do. The lucrativeness of trade in California was once a reality. But it has ceased to be so, and yet the realization of the truth seems difficult to those whom it most concerns. Shipments continue to be made to this port with the same zest that marked previous and paying enter-

prises—when we produced not within our borders one pound of any thing that we consumed. The difference of period and of condition of country, enters not into the calculation of persons abroad.

Time was, when almost any conceivable species of merchandise shipped hither brought remunerative returns. That time has passed away. We have become a producing people, and want little from abroad. Yet those who have formerly and advantageously supplied us, tell us they know all about our market, and in illustration of this knowledge heap upon us new cargoes of merchandise which cannot be sold at first cost—and this in the face of our earnest protestation that we want no more. The question suggests itself, can this state of things last always? Will eastern shippers never tire of continued loss? Must there ever be new batches of candidates for ruin rising up to supply the places of those who have sunk under the losses incurred by their over-trading with us? It would seem indeed that the infatuation which has ruined so many, is not likely to have a speedy termination. Ships continue to "fill up," and to arrive—and their cargoes continue to find their way to storehouses, and thence, after a few months' expensive slumber, to the auction rooms. And accounts of sales go home, showing a meagre fraction of original cost, or no fraction at all! And yet our eastern friends affect to know all about our market. They tell us so, and show that they are in earnest by their acts. They regard the low prices that have so long ruled as temporary, and look forward to a revival—and worse, often instruct to hold for paying rates. Would it avail, we could tell them once for all, that for the goods they have sent us, such prices can never come.

We are cognisant of large invoices of goods, which but for such instructions, might have been sold at a comparative trifling loss months ago, but which now, with accumulated expenses on them, and in the face of constantly receding prices, can never bring back to the shipper a sum within fifty per cent. of the original outlay. Merchants here regard the matter in its true light, and as far as compatable with instructions, are closing out consignments. In this way only can they in many instances, make the goods pay the expenses attendant on their importation and safe keeping, and this state of affairs will probably, for months to come, keep our market quotations at a low ebb.

If these quotations should produce a most desirable effect in the right quarter—if they should induce the conviction that out of California, little or nothing is correctly known of the peculiarities of California trade—then the result cannot fail of being beneficial to commercial pursuits, both here and abroad. Persons who desire to supply this market with merchandise should know more about us and our wants—our resources, and our capacity to consume. Until they so acquaint themselves, and regulate their shipments accordingly, they must continue to be losers by the traffic.

HIGH RENTS.

We offered some remarks yesterday on the subject of the present depressed condition of trade in this city, and set forth what we deemed some of the leading causes. We assumed the position that there were too many persons among us engaged in mercantile pursuits, and too many goods pressing on the market, to admit of a lucrative trade. There are still other causes in existence, however, which conspire with those named to render the calling of the merchant unprofitable, and among these the fictitious value of real estate, and its attendant high rents, are potent of evil.

The intrinsic value of real estate, it seems to us, can only be measured correctly by the business prosperity of its locality. Business men, not themselves the owners of real estate, may for a time struggle under an enormous weight of taxation in the way of rents, but when they find that their business is no longer sufficiently productive to warrant the taxation, they have but one recourse, and that is, to vacate the premises occupied, and direct their attention to other and less onerous pursuits. And we think the time has about arrived when a large portion of our mercantile community will take this view of the matter. Very many have labored assiduously for the last year, but labored in vain, to save something over and above their expenses, and are becoming thoroughly disgusted with the task of working for their landlords and finding themselves.

Property owners tell us that the percentage on investments, in the way of rents, high though they be, is much less than would be the returns for money loaned on real estate security.

After taxes &c., are paid, they say they can scarcely realize more than two per cent. per month, while on loans the rate of interest if from three to five per cent. This may be all true, but it does not render the condition of the tenant a morsel the better. If the business of the latter is not sufficiently productive, he must relinquish it, and the building which he occupied must lie idle. So far as the landlord is concerned, it matters not at what interest he *could* have loaned his money. The investment is already made, and he must either receive a lessened rate of interest, or none at all Beside, the enhanced value of money in the way of loans is mainly dependant on commercial embarrassment. Let one half the number of mercantile firms now engaged in business retire, and this embarrassment will decrease in the same ratio, and as a consequence, the rates of interest on loans must decline. Would it not be more wise therefore in the real estate owner to so far reduce his rents as to bring them within the paying reach of tenants? Building improvements for the last year, have been to a greater extent than the trade of the city required, and houses must either be occupied at moderate rents, or left unoccupied.

A stroll through the principal business streets of the city would be convincive of this, for already has the work of vacation com-

menced. What it may be, at the end of six months, unless the proper remedy is applied, can easily be conjectured. The end is not yet—we have but the beginning.

Those who may be curious to take a glance at the business prosperity of San Francisco, would do well to single out some particular section, embracing say, half a dozen blocks, and compare the relative number of buildings occupied and unoccupied. If they do so, they will find that our animadversions are not groundless. Curiosity led us yesterday to a comparison of this kind, the area of our research being bounded by Montgomery street on the west, East street on the east, Market street on the south, and Pacific street on the north. It will be conceded that this is a pretty fair slice of the business portion of the city. We submit the results, premising that the buildings counted were erected for business purposes only, dwellings not being enumerated:

	Occup'd.	*Vacant.*		*Occup'd.*	*Vacant.*
Market st.....	39	9	Jackson st.....	92	25
Sutter st.....	3	2	Pacific st.....	86	42
Bush st.....	28	6	Sansome st.....	97	33
Pine st.....	24	none	Battery st.....	82	9
California st.....	89	24	Front st.....	76	10
Sacramento st....	73	51	Davis st.....	44	17
Long Wharf.....	111	37	Drum st.....	5	1
Clay st.....	97	42	East st.....	6	1
Merchant st.....	21	15			
Washington st....	52	23	Total.....	1025	347

Here we find that within the boundery named, we have more than *one-fourth* of all the houses erected for business, *vacant*, and yet scarcely a hole large enough for a cobblers' stall, throughout the district, could be rented for much less than one hundred dollars per month. The effect is, that they cannot be occupied. The money cannot be gathered together, these dull times, to pay the rent, so that the landlord, by demanding excessive rates, derives no revenue at all.

We have alluded to this state of affairs as but a beginning. Either rents must come down, or signs must come down more rapidly, and that shortly.—[*Placer Times and Transcript.*

We find the following prices of flour &c., in the *Placer Times and Transcript* of the 1st Aug. 1854:

Flour—Callego and Haxall inspected, per bbl. $10. @ 10.50; Chili sacks, 200 ℔ $8.25 @ 9.; Domestic, "a hashed article," composed either entirely of Chili, or Chili and American $8.25 @ $9.25 per 200 ℔.

Wheat—good domestic 2¼ ct. per ℔.

Corn—Eastern inferior 1¼ ct. per ℔; and good, jobbing sale at 2⅜ ct. per ℔.

Barley—1⅛ @ 1⅜ ct. per ℔.

From the "Placer Times and Transcript" of July 15th, 1854.

EXPORTS OF GOLD FROM CALIFORNIA, FOR THE FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1853 AND 1854.

From the mining districts, the intelligence is of the same flattering complexion, as at the date of our last reference. The miners continue to do well. The exports of gold for June fell short of those of the preceding month, but they exceeded those of June 1853, by more than $85,000. A month ago, in giving a comparative statement of the exports of gold for the first five months of the respective years, 1853 and 1854, we offered some argument to show that our exports of treasure afford no just criterion of the productiveness of the mines. The low prices of merchandise which have ruled for many months, would themselves afford an explanation of the fact that all the gold produced from the mines, is no longer, as formerly, sent out of the country in exchange for the means of living. We need not repeat the arguments then adduced. The rapidly advancing prosperity of the country bears evidence that much of the wealth of the mines is retained within our borders.

From the following tabular view it will be perceived that the exports of treasure for the first six months of the present year, fall short of those of a corresponding period of last year nearly three millions of dollars:

		1853.	1854.
January	15th	1,744,399	1,729,532
February	1 st	2,430,000	1,755,488
do	15th	2,890,558	2,081,729
March	1 st	2,066,338	1,540,647
do	15th	2,419,400	1,816,724
April	1 st	2,234,308	2,206,789
do	15th	2,596,560	2,312,424
May	1 st	2,130,738	2,149,681
do	15th	2,511,986	2,347,444
June	1 st	2,604,583	2,685,615
do	15th	2,223,870	2,245,213
July	1 st	2,004,149	2,067,876
Total		$27,856,889	$24,939,162

Excess of exports of 1853 over 1854..... $2,917,727

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

JAPAN TREATY.

The following is a copy of the Japan treaty, communicated in the Senate, July 12th:

TREATY.

Between the United States of America and the empire of Japan, done at Kanagawa, the 21st of March, in the year of our Lord Jesus Christ, 1854, and of Kayie the seventh year, third month and third day.

The United States of America and the empire of Japan, desiring to establish firm, lasting and sincere friendship between the two nations, have resolved to fix, in a manner clear and positive, by means of a treaty or general convention of peace and amity, the rules which shall in future be mutually observed in the intercourse in their respective countries, for which most desirable object the President of the United States has conferred full powers on his Commissioner, Mathew Calbraith Perry, special embassador of the United States to Japan, and the august Sovereign of Japan has given similar full power to his Commissioners, Hayashi-daigarkuno-kani, Ido, Prince of Tsus; Sima Izawa, Prince of Mima-Saki, and Adano, member of the Board of Revenue—and the said Commissioners, after having exchanged their said full powers, and duly considered the premises, have agreed to the following articles:

ARTICLE 1. There shall be a perfect, permanent and universal peace, and a sincere, cordial amity between the United States of America on the one part and the Emperor of Japan on the other part, and between their people respectively, without exception of persons or places.

ART. 2. The port of Simoda, in the principality of Idzu, and the port of Hakodade, in the principality of Matsmai, are granted by the Japanese as ports for the reception of American ships, where they can be supplied with wood, water, provisions and coal, and other articles their necessities may require, as far as the Japanese have them. The time for opening the first named port is immediately on signing this treaty; the last named port is to be opened immediately after the same day in the ensuing Japanese year. [NOTE.—A tariff of prices shall be given by the Japanese officers of the things which they can furnish, payment for which shall be made in gold or silver coin.]

ART. 3. Whenever ships of the United States are thrown or wrecked on the coast of Japan, the Japanese vessels will assist them and carry their crews to Simoda or Hakodade, and hand them over to their countrymen, appointed to receive them; and whatever articles the shipwrecked may have preserved, shall likewise be restored, and the expenses incurred in the rescue and sup-

port of Americans and Japanes who may thus be thrown upon the shores of either nation, are not to be refunded.

ART. 4 Those shipwrecked persons and other citizens of the United States shall be free as in other countries, and not be subjected to confinement, but shall be amenable to just laws.

ART. 5. Shipwrecked mariners and other citizens of the United States, temporarily living at Simoda or Hakodade, shall not be subject to such restrictions and confinement as the Dutch and Chinese are at Nagasaki, but shall be free at Simoda to go where they please within the limits of seven Japanese miles [or ri] from a small island in the harbor ef Simoda, marked on the accompanying chart hereto appended, and shall in like manner be free to go where they please at Hakodade, within limits to be defined after the visit of the United States squadron to that place.

ART. 6. If there be any other sort of goods wanted or any business which shall require to be arranged, there shall be careful deliberation between the parties, in order to settle such matters.

ART. 7. It is agreed that the ships of the United States resorting to the ports open to them, shall be permitted to exchange gold and silver coin and articles of goods for other articles of goods, under such regulations as shall be temporarily established by the Japanese government for that purpose. It is stipulated, however, that the ships of the United States shall be permitted to carry away whatever articles they are unwilling to exchange.

ART. 8. Wood, paper, provisions, coal and goods required, shall only be procured through the agency of Japanese officers appointed for that purpose, and in no other manner.

ART. 9. It is agreed that if at any future day the government of Japan shall grant to any other nation or nations, privileges and advantages which are not herein guaranteed to the United States and the citizens thereof, that these same privileges and advantages shall be granted likewise to the United States and the persons thereof, without any consultation or delay.

ART. 10. Ships of the United States shall be permitted to resort to no other port of Japan but Simoda and Hakodade, unless in distress or forced by stress of weather.

ART. 11. There shall be appointed by the government of the United States consuls or agents, to reside in Simoda, at any time after the expiration of eighteen months from the date of the signing of this treaty, provided that either of the two governments deem such arrangement necessary.

ART. 12. The present convention having been concluded and duly signed, shall be obligatory and faithfully observed by the United States of America and Japan, and by the citizens and subjects of each respective Power; and it is to be ratified and approved by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by the august Sovereign of Japan; and the ratification shall be exchanged within

eighteen months from the date of the signature thereof, or sooner if practicable. In faith whereof, we, the respective plenipotentiaries of the United States of America and the empire of Japan, aforesaid, have signed and sealed these presents.

Done at Kanagawa, this thirty first day of March, in the year of our Lord Jesus Christ one thousand eight hundred and fifty-four, and of Kayei the seventh year, third month and third day.

M. C. PERRY.

JOURNAL OF PUBLIC IMPROVEMENT.

HELENA, Ark.—Its Railroad and Commercial Prospects.

We have received a printed sheet, in the form of a circular, setting forth the claims of Helena, as the centre of an important Railroad and commercial system; and having been the first to advocate the project of a Railroad connection between St. Louis and New Orleans in which Helena was indicated as the point of crossing the Mississippi, we are pleased to find that the friends of that place are able to make out so good a case in its favor.

We are not disposed to advocate the commencement of any new Railroad at the present time; but there is nevertheless great propriety in projecting and deciding upon a system, that the public mind may be fixed, and ready to carry it out as soon as a more favorable season for operation arrives.

A Railroad from St. Louis to Helena will not conflict in any considerable degree with the road proposed as a connection between this place and Memphis. Both lines are needed to develope the rich resources of eastern Arkansas, and, as connecting links between the system of public improvement on the eastern and western sides of the Mississippi. The following is a copy of the paper above alluded to:

THE CASE OF HELENA STATED.

For the State Gazette & Democrat.

Mr. Editor—Under the invitation given in the Gazette and Democrat of the 14th inst., let me request a place in your intelligent paper for a few communications on the subject of the commercial facilities and Railroad adaptation of Helena.

The Railroad system that has been designed for us by our own citizens and by outside organizations are these: The Midland Railroad, connecting us with the Arkansas river at your city; the Helena, Holly Springs, and Charleston Railroad, connecting us at the Holly Springs, Mississippi, with the Road system of the Union, and the St. Louis, Helena, and New Orleans Railroad, placing us in daily communication with the northwest on the one hand, and the great southern emporium on the other.

The people of North Mississippi undertake voluntarily the extension of the Midland Railroad. With them this road is a spontaneous suggestion of their own commercial interests; and having been chartered by the last Legislature of their State, will be put in active progress on the setting in of moderate weather. This road is about 70 miles long; and traversing a highly favorable and wealthy section of country, may be regarded a sober reality. The leaders in this enterprise are amongst the ablest men in Mississippi—J. W. Clapp and Roger Barton, Esqs., and the Hon. J. Mathews.

The St. Louis, Helena, and New Orleans Railroad originated in the public press of St. Louis. It appeared afterwards before Congress, at the instance of St. Louis, as an applicant for public lands. The Legislature of Mississippi has since chartered a company for the construction of that portion of it within its jurisdiction; and under this charter, I learn large donations of land along the route are being daily made to the company. Such is the feeling on this subject in Mississippi, that the Legislature in compliance therewith, has felt called on to invite the Legislature of this State to connect the Fort Smith and Little Rock road with the St. Louis, Helena, and New Orleans Railroad at Helena. A large residue of the rich swamp lands of the Yazoo still vesting in the State of Mississippi, the delegation of that State in Congress, having been instructed on the subject of that road by their Legislature, are seeking authority, in conjunction with the delegates of Missouri and Arkansas, to apply a certain area of the swamp lands, vesting in three States, to aid in the construction of the St. Louis, Helena and New Orleans Railroad. The citizens of Helena are at length to act in this great enterprise, by obtaining for the portion of the road, between this and the Missouri line, a charter under the general law of the State, in the name of certain gentlemen of St. Louis, Arkansas, Mississippi and New Orleans.

Such is the Railroad system about to center on our town, the voluntary offering of outside interests to her magnificent position. The commercial necessities offering us the Holly Springs and St. Louis roads, being constant causes must as such, result sooner or later in their *appropriate effects*; and the time at which they must so result, being influenced a good deal by the success of the Midland Railroad, *that one work* shall continue to engage as it

now does, the undivided resources of our citizens. Before going into the details of the splendid system of Railroads concentrating at this point, I will, in the first place, take leave to make a brief survey of the grounds on which rests the profound belief of our people in our approaching commercial greatness. The fraternal pride with which I know the prosperity of this town is, as an Arkanses town, regarded by the people of the State, will, doubtless, lend an interest to my remarks, much beyond their humble merits.

The future of Helena is very plainly sketched in the topography and industrial geography of its position.

Helena occupies the only site south of St. Genevieve, in Missouri, at which the "Father of Waters" is accessible from the west over high and dry land. Herein lies one striking element in her approaching greatness.

At this point the great spur of the Ozark mountains of Missouri, known as "Crowley's Ridge," breaks off on the banks of the Mississippi; and the town being seated, chiefly, on the terminal sloops of this ridge, is therefore situated at the edge of the table lands lying west of this ridge, for its whole length. These lands, commencing at the river, and running west of the town for forty miles are superior to all overflow, of extraordinary fertility, and eminent adaptation to all the purposes of agriculture. The health and wealth of this high aud rich back country, furnishes the prime condition of civic growth.

Helena is situated on the bank of the cheapest line of transport in the world, the Mississippi river, and when you consider the impediments and dangers of President's Island—the dangers as indicated in the annual disasters occuring there, and the impediments as implied in the fact, that Capt. Church, of the "Bulletin," makes it the subject of special soundings during low water—you will conclude at once that *this town of ours is situated at the actual head of safe and never-failing navigation.* Here then is an advantage which has, when even unaided by any others, been the fruitful source of business centralization.

At this city the Mississippi bottom, lying altogether on the eastern side of the river, is reduced to its narrowest width: the hills of De Soto county, Mississippi, visible from this with the naked eye, are but 21 miles according to the government surveys, from the elevation on whose slopes our town is situated. This fact shows our cheap accessibility from the eastward; and carries with it in its bearings on our civic greatness, all the importance of an active, because economical intercourse with the rich cotton-lands of North Mississippi.

The great and wealthy valley of the Yazoo heads up in the immediate neighborhood of Helena. This valley, containing millions of acres of the very best cotton-lands in the world, is settling up rapidly. The higher lands of eastern Mississippi being by the un-

fortunate system of culture pursued thereon, in a condition of rapid exhaustion, the present rush of capital into the Yazoo valley will infalliably proceed, until the whole area shall by occupied by, as indicated in the character of the present movement, the wealthiest planters of that prosperous State. A million of bales is not too high an estimate for the then production of the Yazoo valley—a country whose approach from the mineral, breadstuff and textile region of south-eastern Missouri and northern Arkansas, lies through this town. The force of its position in relation to the Yazoo and Iron Mountain must call forth at this place, as with the wand of a magician, a distributing emporium for the immense supplies of cattle, corn, castings, bagging, rope, &c. &c., that must pass from the north part of our own State and the southern portion of Missouri, into that future home of a great cotton planting community—the Yazoo valley. Furthermore, our position will draw to us at first, in virtue of the economy of shipment from a point of aggregation, the yield of the neighboring portion of the Yazoo valley; but whatever may be the amount of this at first, there can be very little doubt that the coals and cereals of the southern section of Missouri and the northern portion of this State, foreshadowing plainly the sites of future factories for the reduction of cotton, the shipments of that staple from the Yazoo valley to this point, while being considerable at the outset, will go on in a steady active increase. Both mediately and immediately then, the position of Helena in reference to the Yazoo valley conspires irresistably to confer on her the iron-crown of industrial empire. I shall sum up on this head thus:

Firstly—That it is the only point south of St. Genevieve, in Missouri, at which the west bank of the Mississippi river is accessible over a country high and dry.

Secondly—That it is the only site on the west bank of the Mississippi river, south of Missouri, backed by a country elevated, rich, healthy and eminently adapted to all the products of the field and garden.

Thirdly—That it is for large boats the head of the uninterrupted navigation of the Mississippi river.

Fourthly—That, situated at the narrowest crossing of the Mississippi bottom, within the slaveholding States, it is the destined outlet for the intercourse of the southern & S. western States with the southern west.

Fifthly—That, as reported to the Government by Lieut. Whipple, it is situated on the most direct extension towards the Atlantic of that best of all the southern routes to the Pacific—the route near 33 deg. 30 min.

Sixthly—That, as the gate into the Yazoo valley for the minerals, fabrics, and breadstuffs of northern Arkansas and southern Missouri, it is situated at the Mississippi-crossing of the economi-

cal and therefore foreordained route of the great Railroad from St. Louis to New Orleans.

For these six grave reasons, I say this city of Helena will be seen by men of faith and foresight, as though its site had been selected by a flight of eagles, to bear irresistible evidence of future greatness. H.

KEOKUK AND MUSCATINE RAILROAD.

We perceive from our exchanges, that the citizens of south-eastern Iowa are earnestly discussing the project of connecting Keokuk and Muscatine by Railroad. This is a move in the right direction and shows that the people of the upper Mississippi are beginning to discover that the bulky and low priced productions of their farms can not be transported on Railroads to eastern markets and exchanged for sugar, salt, iron, and other heavy commodities, upon terms that will authorize them to abandon the southern trade.

We regard the Keokuk and Muscatine Railroad as a work, plainly indicated and imperiously demanded by the laws of commerce; and though its accomplishment may be delayed for some years, yet its consummation within a reasonable period is beyond all question.

CLEVELAND AND ST. LOUIS AIR LINE RAILROAD.

This is one of the great lines of railway designed to connect St. Louis with the eastern States which has been projected, as we believe, without co-operation with this city. We have watched the movements of this great enterprise with no ordinary degree of interest, and have published from time to time such facts relating to its progress as we deemed interesting to our patrons.

The company has recently issued a statement of its affairs; portions of which have been published in the American Railroad Journal, whence we copy the following extracts:

This enterprise embraces a line of railway extending from Cleveland to Paris, in the State of Illinois, a distance of 342½ miles, by the actual surveys and location of E. G. Goddard, Esq., the Chief Engineer of the companies, upon a route, differing from a perfectly straight line, between the termini, by a distance of only three miles.

The line commencing at Cleveland, passes across the States of Ohio and Indiana, and about ten miles within the State of Illinois, to a junction at Paris in that State, with the Terre Haute and Alton Railroad, now under construction, and to be finished in June, 1855; thus affording an extension of the line to the City of St. Louis, the whole forming a line unexampled in this country for its directness and low grades, and to which, in its details, the attention of capitalists, and all others interested in its construction, is invited with great confidence.

The entire distance between Cleveland and St. Louis, by this line, is 510 miles, which may be easily reduced by improvements west of Paris, to 500 miles.

* * * * * *

The whole distance from Cleveland, to a connection with the Terre Haute and Alton Road, at Paris in Illinois, is 342⅓ miles, which does not exceed an air line more than *three* miles, or one mile in every 114 miles. Of *straight* line there are 330⅓ miles, or twenty-seven twenty eighths of the whole distance, rendering collisions impossible.—Of that straight line, 188 miles, from Tiffin, in Ohio, to Lebanon, in Indiana, are *continuous*, immediately preceded, on one end, by a straight line of 26 miles, and succeeded on the other, by a straight line of 30 miles, making 244 miles of *contiguous* straight lines, 188 miles of which are *continuous*. The angles connecting these lines are so slight as to be of no practical moment, and the only reason why the entire 244 miles are not placed in a single straight line is the desirableness, arising solely from business relations, of reaching the two extreme points, Tiffin and Lebanon, which otherwise would be left northward from one to two miles.

West of the Wabash river, near the westerly end of the line, occur two maximum curves of 1,432.5 feet radius. Aside from these there are none of a less radius than 2,865 feet, while the majority have a radius of 5,740 feet or over one mile.

The maximum grade is 39½ feet per mile, and occurs ascending west from the Wabash river, in all 5 70-100 miles.

Of level line there are 75 86-100th miles nearly one quarter of the whole distance.

For about 244 *continuous* miles, and on the straight lines, no grades exceed 21.12 feet per mile *leaving the heavier grades at the remote ends of the line.*

Trains passing east *ascend* no grades exceeding 26.4 feet per mile, and are favored with 19 miles of level and descending grades.

St. Louis will unquestionable stand midway on one of the great lines destined to be speedily constructed to the Pacific Ocean. In this case the Cleveland and St. Louis Railroad must form an essential and important part of such a line. Its terminus at Cleve-

land is common to all the Eastern cities, while, with the Cleveland, Terre Haute and Alton and St. Louis Railroads, it makes a line absolutely straight from Buffalo to St. Louis. This line to San Francisco will be found shorter than any other.

We learn from the *Railroad Record* that the amount of stock authorized is $6,500,000, and that the resources are stock subscriptions $3,200,000, future do. $1,3000,000, and first mortgage convertable bonds $4,500,000, total $9,000,000.

Arrangements have been made to commence the work on independent sections, in both Ohio and Indiana, keeping closely within the means of the company. By building thus in sections, having productive connections, the road will be available as fast as completed.

OHIO AND MISSISSIPPI RAILROAD.

The western division of this important Road is progressing with commendable speed, all things considered, and we are happy to record the fact that the public is beginning to realize the benefits of this great enterprise.

On the 26th day of the present month [August], the road was opened for travel from Illinoistown to Carlisle, a distance of forty-six miles; and it is expected that it will be opened to Sandoval, where it intersects the Illinois Central Railroad, fifty-nine miles from Illinoistown, by the first of October. An additional section of nine miles from Sandoval to Salem is expected to be completed by the first of December.

The southern division of the Illinois Central Railroad is said to be progressing with great speed, and it is understood that a connection between St. Louis and Cairo will be established by the 1st of November.

CHICAGO AND MISSISSIPPI RAILROAD COMPLETED.

We extract the following paragraph from the *Alton Telegraph*, of the 1st of the present month (Aug.):

"Through to Chicago.—According to announcement on Saturday, the passenger trains of the Alton and Chicago Railroad began their regular trips yesterday between the two cities, the first train going out under the charge of the veteran Conductor, E. P.

HOLLISTER. This will be gratifying intelligence to the traveling public, who have heretofore been much annoyed by the frequent changing of cars and baggage, consequent upon making a connection with other roads. The time through from this city to Chicago, is twelve hours, being a large gain, and will enable passengers to reach New York six hours earlier than heretofore. It will be observed that the morning trains will hereafter depart at 9:45, instead of 10 o'clock; and the evening trains start at 6:45, instead of 8 o'clock."

MISSISSIPPI AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.

We have received the Report of the President, Treasurer and Chief Engineer of this Road, and are gratified to learn that the work is about to be commenced with a fair prospect of its accomplishment within a reasonable period.

We regard the Mississippi and Tennessee railroad as constituting a link in a chain of railways connecting St. Louis with New Orleans, and though we still look with confidence to a connection with New Orleans by the way of Helena, we regard the route by Memphis as the first to be completed.

We learn from the Engineer's Report that the road had been located 60 miles from Memphis, and that in all probability a cheap and practicable line not exceeding 87 miles would be obtained to Grenada, which will be but 3⅓ miles longer than an air line. The maximum grade is 47½ feet per mile, and the minimum radius of curvature 1,910 feet. In a distance of 62 miles 640 feet located, the total length of straight line is 52 miles 2,111 feet, and total length of curved line 9 miles 3,809 feet.

In the general estimate, including equipment, depots, engineering, &c., the total cost is set down at $2,000,000. But under the head of "resources," the engineer says that by a partial curtailment of the equipment and the temporary substitution of wooden structures for brick work, the road may be put into operation and do a profitable business for several years for the sum of $1,700,000. To meet this sum we have the following statement of resources.

Individual cash subscription	$534,725 00
Memphis city subscription—bonds payable in thirty years, bearing interest at 6 per cent. payable semi-annually, for which the city provides a special tax —the proceeds pledged to the purchase of iron	150,000 00

Tennessee State loan—bonds payable in 30 years, bearing 6 per cent., payable semi-annually: principal and interest to be paid by the company, and a first mortgage given to the State on 9¾ miles of the road, as security for their payment—this also pledged to the purchase of iron.....	97,500,000
Total.....	$782,225,00
Amount required to put the road in operation.....	$1,700,000 00
Amount raised.....	782,225 00
Deficit.....	$917,975 00

to be raised by additional subscription of stock, by stock taken in work, and from the sale of Company Bonds, secured by a first mortgage on the Mississippi portion of the road, and a second mortgage on the Tennessee portion.

Contracts for the grading of seventeen miles have been closed, which is to be completed by the 1st July, 1855; contracts for 18 miles more are to be closed as soon as the notes of location can be completed. A contract has been closed for the trestle work on the first 37 miles from Memphis, and also for the masonry of the first five miles.

LAKE ERIE, WABASH & ST. LOUIS RAILROAD.

This is another important road which has been commenced at a distant point from St. Louis and without co-operation of the citizens of the city. Toledo bids fair to become one of the most important commercial cities on Lake Erie, and being the nearest point at which the lake can be reached from the Mississippi, a direct line of railway from there to St. Louis must be regarded as a work of first rate importance in the system of public improvements of which St. Louis is the center.

We have seen no very recent notice of the progress of this work, but the following paragraph which appeared in the *Toledo Blade*, some two months since, shows that it was then being prosecuted with much spirit.

The Lake Erie, Wabash and St. Louis Railroad.—The work on this great route is being pushed with great activity, and we are assured that it will be put in operation between here and Fort Wayne before snow flies. The contractors are at work along the

whole line, and we understand the payments for labor are $110,000 per month. Ten thousand tons of iron, much more than enough to reach Fort Wayne, are bought and paid for, and a large share of it delivered. We naturally feel a great interest in this route, inasmuch as its business so exclusively will be concentrated at Toledo. The works here at the terminus will be constructed with all possible despatch.

MINES AND MINING.

PRODUCE OF GOLD IN AUSTRALIA.

At a season when the financial condition of the country is regarded as unsettled and critical, it is important to note the facts relating to the production of the precious metals; for upon a correct knowledge of this subject depends in a good degree the re-adjustment of commerce and finance on a sound basis. It will be seen from the following extracts from the *Mining Magazine* that there has been a decline in the shipment of gold from Australia during the present year as well as from California.

The yield, at later dates, of the old gold fields continues remarkably steady, although a comparison of quantities for the first four months of the years 1853 and 1854, respectively, continues to show a falling off in our receipts per government escorts, to the extent of about 3,530 ounces per week. These escort returns, however, are no infallible guides to the actual yield, especially at the present time, when branch banks and brokers at the principal gold fields are paying the diggers within sixpence per ounce of the Melbourne prices. The broker's price to diggers at this date, is £3 19*s*. per ounce. The shipments for the six weeks under notice, have been exclusively to London and Liverpool, and have comprised 141,742 ounces. The entire shipments for the year up to this date have been 713,230 ounces, being 47,415 ounces less than the shipments in the corresponding four months of 1853.

JOURNAL OF MANUFACTURES.

[From the Railroad Record.]

COST AND CONSUMPTION OF GAS IN THE U. S.

An interesting report by the Cincinnati Gas Co., shows the price at which gas is supplied by the companies of various cities and towns in the U. S. From this summary it would appear that at Pittsburgh and Philadelphia gas is furnished much cheaper than at other places. We enumerate here the price of gas at thirty-four different towns, with the length of street mains, and the quantity of gas consumed annually:—

Cities.	Price per 1,000 feet.	Length of street mains.	Cubic feet sold per annum.
Philadelphia	$1,90	120 miles.	250,000
Pittsburgh	1,90	14⅝ "	33,447
Boston	2,50	50 "	135,000
Evansville, Ind	3,00	3½ "	2,160
N. York, Manhat. Co.	3,00	170 "	300,000
St. Louis, Mo	3,00	34¼ "	43,000
Wheeling, Va	3,00	5 "	.....
Providence, R. I	3,00	20 "	27,722
Wilmington, Del	3,00	8½ "	8,030
Baltimore, Md	3,00	40 "	65,946
Cincinnati, O	3,00	30 "	.....
Cleveland	3,00	7 "	15,000
Columbus	3 00	5 "	8,117
Indianopolis, Ind	3,50	3 "	2,880
New Albany	3,50	4,000 feet	2,000
Zanesville, O.	3,50	19,000 "	1,260
Madison, Ind	3,50	20,000 "	5,000
Brooklin, N. Y.	3,50	65 miles	80,000
Chicago, Ill	3,50	13 "	18,000
Rochester, N. Y	3,50	11 "	15,000
Hartford, Conn	3.50	3 "	7,660
Washington, D. C.	3,80	18 "	17,000
Lancaster, Pa.	3,80	6 "	4,500
Lexington, Ky.	4,00	20,500 feet	3,319
Nashville, Tenn.	4.00	5 miles	8,000
Dayton, Ohio	4.00	6 "	4,500
New Haven, Conn	4,00	13 "	10,300
Memphis, Tenn.	4,00	3 "	.....
Schenectady, N. Y.	4,00	4 "	.....
Troy	4,00	9 "	10,000
Albany	4,00	10 "	20,000
Mobile, Ala.	4,50	.. "	.....
Springfield, O	5.00	2 "	8,400
Auburn, N. Y	7,00	2 "	8,500

At New York there is another company, so that the whole quantity consumed is not shown by the above table. At Pittsburgh and St. Louis, coal is worth about 7 a 10 cents per bushel,* Cincinnati, 10 a 15 cents, with a tendency, at all the places enumerated, to a rise in the market price. At Pittsburgh, Pa.; Madison, Ind.; and Wheeling, Va., the gas works are owned in part by the cities; at Philadelphia they are owned entirely by the city.

* The coal used for making gas at St. Louis is brought from Pittsburgh.

THE

WESTERN JOURNAL

and Civilian.

VOL. XII. September, 1854. No. VI.

ARTICLE I.

The Public Lands:—Speech of Mr. Perkins of La.

THE vices inherent in the policy pursued by the general government in respect to the public domain, have long been perceived and deprecated by sagacious and patriotic statesmen; and although the evils which flow from that policy multiply from year to year, yet its most vital errors are still permitted to exist without amendment.

In relation to this subject, according to our view, the first step which has been taken in the right direction, was the passage of the law of the late session of Congress, graduating the price of the public land by a scale deduced from the time they have been in market. But while we admit that this law is calculated to ameliorate, in some degree, the evils of the old system, it bears the marks of a timed and temporising measure, proposed by individuals who feared to grapple with the fundamental vice from which the evils of the system flow. We mean no disparagement to the friends of the measure: they may have regarded a thorough reformation as being impracticable under the circumstances then existing, and deemed it the better policy to introduce a new system, by making partial inroads upon the old one.

We hold it to be totally inconsistent with the nature of our institutions that the General Government should own and exercise the right of disposing of large quantities of land within the limits of the States. This is the vital objection to the present system. We do not demand that the right should be relinquished unconditionally and without delay; but we do most emphatically protest against the proposition that the General Government shall take thirty years from the date of the first offering to traffic off its lands

situated within the limits of the States. But the graduation law does not contemplate the relinquishment by the General Government of its claim to the unsold lands even at the end of thirty years; it allows that period to elapse before the price is reduced to its minimum, still leaving them under the control of the United States. We admit that the law will operate to reduce more speedily the extent and value of the public domain within the States; but, still, enough will be left to constitute a capital for demagogues and political aspirants to trade upon during the present generation. We trust the good sense of the American people will not permit them to rest satisfied until another step shall have been made which will fix a definite period, at the end of which all claim on the part of the General Government to exercise control over the public lands within the States shall cease.

We are the advocates of a law graduating the public lands by a scale that will reduce the price to twenty-five cents per acre at the end of ten years at most from the time they are offered for sale, and, when they shall have remained one year at this price and not sold, they shall become the property of the States in which they are situated. In the mean time we would transfer the management of the surveys and sales to the respective States upon such terms as would be just and reasonable between the parties.

Except as to the proposition to transfer the management and sale of the lands to the States, we have so often, and as we may be allowed to say, so fully discussed this subject in the preceeding volumes of the *Western Journal*, that we could adduce no argument here which has not been offered in other parts of our work. The proposition to transfer the management of the lands to the States is contained in a bill offered in Congress by Mr. Boyd, of Kentucky, and most ably advocated by Mr. Perkins, of Louisiana. The principle involved in the bill meets our cordial approbation; though we do not fully approve of the details. The details, however, are comparatively of but little importance when viewed in connection with the main objects of the bill.

We regard it as a favorable omen of success that this measure was brought forward by an influencial member of Congress from a State in which there are no public lands; and we are persuaded that if its friends will persevere in their efforts, they will entitle themselves to the gratitude of the nation by removing one of the most fruitful sources of political corruption.

The subject was so fully and ably discussed by Mr. Perkins in the House before the committee of the whole, that we propose to adopt his arguments, and regret that the arrangement of matter for the present number does not admit of the publication of his entire speech, which fills a pamphlet of about thirty pages. For, notwithstanding the great length of the speech, it is difficult to abridge it without detracting from the force of the argument, and doing injustice to the author.

Mr. PERKINS rose and said:

Mr. CHAIRMAN: Of all the great questions that have been discussed within these walls, no one has so deeply affected the legislation of the country as that of the disposition of the public lands. Like agriculture in our material interests, it is at the bottom, and has affected every other interest. In addressing the House in explanation of the substitute I have offered, I should feel great diffidence if I proposed more than to recall the views of those who have already discussed the subject. Within the hour allowed me, I can only state principles and facts, and indicate without arguing their application.

Mr. Calhoun once remarked to Chief Justice Marshall, who frequently repeated it in illustration of the mental analysis of the great South Carolinian, that there were but two things to be considered in the formation of government—*the organization and distribution of power.* The force of this remark is especially felt in any attempt to discuss the policy or operation of our land system without first tracing it to its origin. From an insignificant agency under a clerkship of the Treasury Department, it has, with our increase of population and extension of territory, become a distinct branch of the government, extending in its various ramifications, into thirteen States of the Union, and exerting an influence that, looking to the delicacy and importance of the interests affected, and the nature of our institutions, can find no parallel, except in the India Board, governing from London the immense territories of England in the East.

It was looking at this great development in 1839, when we had only about three-sevenths of our present territory, that Mr. Calhoun said he was satisfied that the period had arrived when its entire revolution, as applicable to the States, was unavoidable. His words were: The States "have outgrown the system. Since its first adoption they have come into existence—have passed through a state of infancy—and are now arrived at manhood. The system which was wise and just at first, is neither wise nor just when applied to them in their changed condition."

Mr. CHAIRMAN, WHAT WAS ORIGINALLY THIS SYSTEM? WHAT ITS OPERATION? IN WHAT IS IT DEFECTIVE? WHAT ARE THE REMEDIES PROPOSED? ARE THEY CONSTITUTIONAL AND EXPEDIENT?

The bill which I offer is directed rather against a vice of organization than of principle. It was first proposed in a resolution introduced into the Senate of the United States, in 1826, by Mr. Tazewell, of Virginia; it was indicated in the message of General Jackson, in 1832, and brought to the notice of the Senate by Mr. Calhoun, in 1837, in a bill almost identical in terms with the present one.

In 1839, Mr. Calhoun advocated it in the Senate. In 1840, he secured a report in its favor from the Senate Committee on Public Lands, composed of Robert J. Walker, chairman; Fulton, of Arkansas; Clay, of Alabama; Prentiss, of Vermont; and Norvell, of Michigan. In 1841, Judge Young, of Illinois, again introduced it into that body, where, after discussion, there were eighteen votes in its favor and twenty-two against it. Among those voting for it I find the names of Allen of Ohio, Anderson, Benton, Calhoun, Clay of Alabama, Fulton, King of Alabama, Linn, Lumpkin, Mouton, Nicholson, Norvell, Robinson, Sevier, Smith of Connecticut, Tappan, Walker of Mississippi, and Young of Illinois.

Before explaining its provisions, it will be necessary to state briefly the history of the acquisition of the public lands, and the policy which has controlled their disposition.

After the declaration of independence, and before the adoption of the articles of confederation, the disposition of the vacant lands in the West, claimed by the several colonies, became a subject of controversy. Maryland, and other of the smaller States, contended that this unsettled domain, if wrested by the common blood and treasure of the thirteen colonies, should be "common property, parcelled out by Congress into free, convenient, and independent governments, in such manner and at such times" as Congress should determine. Maryland refused to accede to the confederation, because this point was not yielded. The other States acceded, reserving their rights to these lands as common property.

In March, 1780, New York, to remove this dissatisfaction, tendered to the States her western lands; and in the same year, Congress passed a resolution "earnestly" recommending the other States having like possessions to do the same; declaring by resolve, on the 10th of October, "that the unappropriated lands" which should "be ceded or relinquished to the United States by any particular State," should be "disposed of for the common benefit of the United States, and be settled and formed into distinct republican States;" "which should become members of the federal Union, and have the same rights of sovereignty and freedom, and independence of the other States;" the lands to be "granted or settled at such times and under such regulations" as should afterwards be agreed upon by the United States in Congress assembled.

In March, 1781, the Maryland delegates signed the articles of

confederation; and under this compact the union of the colonies was complete.

The cession of New York was accepted October, 1782. One of its conditions was, that the lands ceded should "be and inure for the use and benefit of such of the United States" as should "become members of the federal alliance," and for "no other use or purpose whatever."

In March, 1784, Virginia's cession was executed and accepted. One of its conditions was, that the lands ceded should be—

"Considered as a common fund for the Use and benefit of such of the United States as have become, or shall become, members of the confederation or federal alliance of the United States, Virginia inclusive, according to their usual respective proportions in the general charge and expenditure, and shall be faithfully and *bona fide* disposed of for that purpose, and for no other use or purpose whatsoever."

In 1785, '86, and '87, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and South Carolina made cessions of their lands on similar conditions.

Our present government was organized on 5th of March, 1789. The only allusion made to the public lands in the constitution was:

"The Congress shall have power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting, the territory or other property belonging to the United States, and nothing in this constitution shall be so considered as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State."

North Carolina's cession of land was accepted in April, 1790, and Georgia's in June, 1802. These cessions, almost in the terms of those of Virginia, except that Georgia's omitted the clause, "according to their usual respective proportions in the general charge and expenditure," were, like those of all the other colonies, a response to the recommendation of the confederation, and adopted by, and made binding upon, the government, to guard them as a common fund for the common benefit of all the States.

In May, 1785, within a year after the cession by Virginia, and before that from any other State, except New York, Congress passed an ordinance regulating the survey of the public domain, which is the basis of our present system. From this, it has been gradually built up by a long course of executive direction and congressional legislation.

On the 18th May, 1796, Congress passed the first law for the sale of the public lands.

The first land offices were opened at Cincinnati and Pittsburgh. The price fixed was $2 per acre—one-half cash, the residue in one year. On the 10th of May, 1800, Congress extended the credit to one-fourth cash, the residue in four years. The credit granted induced excessive purchases, and in 1805 and '6, and at different periods subsequently up to 1820, Congress passed relief laws in mitigation of the system. In 1820, the present cash system was adopted, and the price reduced to $1 25 per acre.

Appeals to Congress for relief now ceased. This was the *first* decided improvement in the system.

After this, acts of pre-emption were, at various times, passed by Congress, but limited and remedial in their character, until the 4th September, 1841, when our present prospective and general pre-emption law was passed. This was the *second* great improvement in the system.

A graduation bill, founded upon the exercise of the discretion a proprietor exhibits—discriminating in price according to the value of his lands — I consider the *third* great improvement in the system. This, although often urged upon Congress as a constitutional and wise mode of disposing of the large tracts of nearly worthless land owned by the general government within the limits of the land States, has never yet become a law. A bill of this character, introduced by the gentleman from Alabama [Mr. COBB], passed this House a few weeks since, and now awaits the action of the Senate.

SUCH IS THE HISTORY OF THE ORIGINAL ACQUISITION OF THE PUBLIC LANDS BY THE GENERAL GOVERNMENT, AND THEIR ORGANIZATION UNDER OUR PRESENT LAND SYSTEM.

The machinery for their administration was inaugurated in the idea that the public lands were common property, pledged for the common debt, under the exclusive, but not unlimited, control of the general government, and to be used for the common benefit. It acted upon them as a surrender in the common interest, surrounded by the same checks, and to be disposed of subject to the same constitutional limitations, as the funds of the common treasury. Their management was placed under the Treasury Department; their proceeds paid into the common fund; and, except in the discrimination imposed by a proprietorship in kind, rather than in money, the same principles were to govern their administration.

Under these views, the machinery of the system has been developed from a single room in the Treasury Department, at an annual expense in 1802, in Washington, of $1,754, and throughout the country $4,765 26—total, including land offices and surveyors, $6,519 26—into a General Land Office, created in 1812, with a Commissioner, appointed by the President, and elevated, in 1848, into almost a distinct branch of the government, under the Secretary of the Interior, at a cost, according to the estimate of this year, of $189,875 for the Land Office at Washington, and $342,640 for the other land offices and surveying departments—in all $532,515, exclusive of California.

		Acres.
The land system began its operation upon the land in the Territories alone, amounting to		243,990,821
Acquired from Virginia, New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut.....	158,660,299	
From Georgia.....	58,898,522	
From North and South Carolina.....	26,432,000	
And has extended to those since acquired, amounting to.....		1,165,389,741

Acquired from France, 1804.....751,363,501
From Spain, 1819..... 37,931,520
From Mexico, 1847.....376,094,720

Making in all.....1,409,380,562
within the Territories and thirteen States of the Union.

It had in 1802, eleven employés throughout the Union. It has now in the Territories and thirteen land States 336 federal officers, operating upon interests purely local, and of the highest importance to the citizens of the States—all controlled by, and in direct correspondence with, the general office at Washington.

Under its administration there had been surveyed, up to June 30, 1853, 336,202,587 acres—leaving then unsurveyed, 1,073,-177,975 acres.

The expenses of all the branches of the government have increased in the same time, from $3,737,080 in 1802, to about $50,000,000 in 1853.

The population of the United States at the time of the system's organization, in 1800, was 5,305,925; in 1850, 23,191,876.

THE BILL THAT I HAVE OFFERED AS A SUBSTITUTE TO THE ONE BEFORE THE HOUSE, IS IN THE IDEA THAT THIS SYSTEM HAS BECOME UNWIELDY; AND FROM A DEVELOPMENT, UNANTICIPATED AT ITS INSTITUTION, FAILED TO ACCOMPLISH THE PURPOSES OF ITS CREATION.

It proposes to take nothing from the present land system which experience has shown to be valuable; but freeing it of incumbrances, to make permanent its three great improvements, and render them more effective.

It does not propose to sell or give away the public lands to the States within which they lie, but simply to transfer to them their administration, on conditions highly just and equitable to all the States—insuring greater attention to local interests, contravening no mooted constitutional point, simplifying the system, curtailing executive patronage, and confining its operation, as originally, to the Territories.

The amount of public lands within the States, [excluding California, which has 113,682,436 acres,] the administration of which will be conferred upon the States, is 168,178,818 acres; the amount of public land in the Territories, upon which the present system will continue to operate, is 864,069,170 acres.

Mr. Chairman, the vast importance of this public domain to the future interests of the country cannot be appreciated. While in Great Britain proper and equal distribution of land would give a little over two acres to each individual, in the United States it would give 105 acres. This is the great peculiarity of our country. It is our security, and a magnificent basis upon which to erect our future greatness. We should not hasten to destroy it,

but leave its settlement and reduction to cultivation to the operation of natural causes, aided by permanent laws.

I HAVE SAID THE SUBSTITUTE I OFFER IS DIRECTED AGAINST A VICE OF ORGANIZATION, AND NOT OF PRINCIPLE. I will be better understood, perhaps, if I say the evils of our present land system result chiefly from its organization. These evils will be best considered in connexion with the remedies proposed.

WHAT IS THE SUBSTITUTE?

PROVISIONS OF THE BILL.

It provides for the cession of the public lands in the States of Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Florida, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, Iowa, Wisconsin, and California, to these States respectively, on certain conditions.

The said States are to pay into the United States treasury 75 per centum on the gross amount of their sales of such lands.

"That the minimum price, as now fixed by law, shall remain unchanged until the 30th day of June, 1855; but, after that period, the price may be reduced by the States respectively, according to the following scale: all lands theretofore offered at public sale, and then remaining unsold ten years or upward preceding the 30th day of June, 1855, aforesaid, may be reduced by said States to a price not less than one dellar per acre; and all lands that may have been offered at public sale, and remaining unsold fifteen years or upward preceding the said 30th day of June, 1855, may thereafter be reduced to a price not less than seventy-five cents per acre; and all lands that may have been offered at public sale, and remaining unsold twenty years or upward preceding the said 30th day of June, 1855, may then be reduced by said States to a price not less then fifty cents per acre, and all lands that may have been offered at public sale, and remaining unsold twenty-five years or upward preceding the said 30th day of June, 1855, may thereafter he reduced by said States to a price not less than twenty-five cents per acre; and all lands that may have been offered at public sale, and remaining unsold thirty years or upward preceding the said 30th day of June, 1855, shall be ceded immediately to the States in which said lands are situated: *Provided*, That all lands which shall remain unsold after having been offered at public sale for ten years, and which do not come under the above provisions, shall be subject to the provisions of pre-emption, graduation, and disposition aforesaid, at the respective periods of ten, fifteen, twenty, twenty-five, and thirty years after said sale, commencing from the expiration of ten years after the same had been offered at public sale."

The lands are to be subject to the existing legal subdivisions, reserving for each township and fractional township the sixteenth section for the use of schools.

Land sold at public auction to be subject to entry for cash only, according to a fixed graduation.

Acts of Congress in force at the time of the passage of this act to remain unchanged, unless modified by this act.

Lands after private entry may be sold, at the option of the purchaser, in quarter-quarter sections This disposition of lands to the States shall be in full of the five per cent. fund not already accrued to any State—said State to be liable for all the expense of sales and management of said lands, and for extinguishing Indian titles.

On failure to comply with the provisions of this act, the cession of lands to any delinquent State to be void; and all grants or titles thereafter made by any such State to be also void.

After every reduction in the price of the lands by the States, as provided for, the State legislatures may grant to the settlers on such lands rights of pre-emption, to last for 12 months, at such reduced rates; lands not taken by settlers at the end of that time may be entered by any other person, until the next reduction takes place, when, if not previously purchased, they shall be subject to the right of pre-emption for 12 months; and so on, from time to time, as said reductions take place.

The President to close the land offices, surveyor's office, &c., in any State included in this act, that shall, as provided, accept the provisions of this act; and

the commissions of said land officers and surveyors to expire at a period not beyond six months after the time for the law to take effect.

That from the passage of this act the States accepting the transfer under the terms offered, shall be relieved from all restrictions to tax any land by the authority subject to the sale thereof; and all maps, papers, books, and accounts, relative to said lands, now in the General Land Office at Washington, shall be subject to the order of the Executives of the accepting States.

This was the bill as originally introduced by Mr. Speaker Boyd. To this I have added two amendments. The first amendment is a proviso to the first section, and is designed to authorize the States to grant alternate sections of land for railroad purposes. It is as follows:

"*Provided*, That the State may, on the payment of the price fixed by this bill for the land along any railroad line, indemnify itself for the grant of alternate sections of land to such railroad by disposing of the remaining sections along the line at double the price fixed by this bill."

This amendment embraces the question of granting alternate sections of land for railroads, and transfers the question to the States within which the lands are situated.

It authorizes the States to grant alternate sections of land along railroad lines within their borders, and idemnify themselves by disposing of the remaining sections along the line at double the price fixed by the bill.

By it each State may grant, at its discretion, that aid to railroad interests within its borders that is now asked of the general government. Under its operation, the general government is guarantied by the State against any loss in the grant of alternate sections, and each State is made the judge, under the responsibility of a pecuniary interest, in what cases the grant should be made; for, as soon as a grant is made of alternate sections to any railroad, the State pays the regular per centage that would be due, upon the sale of those lands, to the general government, and is reimbursed, as already stated, by the sale of the remaining sections at double price. The other amendment extends the time for right of pre-emption, in the second section, from ninety days to twelve months, and is for the benefit of actual settlers.

The lands in Territories are not affected by the provisions of the bill.

Under this bill the railroad interest is amply protected, the general government is more than reimbursed for the purchase and survey of the public lands, and relieved of an onerous and annoying agency in their disposal, while the citizens of all the States are guarantied the advantages of a graduation in their price.

The States are benefitted by having settled within their borders all those annoying land claims and conflicting titles that come up to Washington from all quarters, to be decided frequently upon imperfect testimony.

Most of the western States have already State as well as federal land offices within their limits. Under this bill the State land offices will do the work of both.

At present the general government pays to each State five per cent. upon the public lands within their borders, and the State cannot tax them for five years after they are sold.

By the substitute this is reversed: the State pays a certain percentage to the general government. The receipt of this per-centage by the general government is insured by the titles under the State being dependent for their legality upon its payment.

In few words, it proposes to transfer all the lands within the States to the States in which they lie, on two conditions:

First, that the States shall dispose of them at $1,75 cents, 50 cents, and 25 cents, according as they have been offered for sale, ten, fifteen, twenty, and twenty-five years.

Second, that the States pay to the general government 75 per cent. upon the net amount realized from their sale. This percentage is to be paid quarterly as the lands are disposed of at the State land offices; those remaining unsold at the end of 30 years to belong to the States.

A GREAT ARGUMENT IN FAVOR OF THE SUBSTITUTE IS, THAT IT CURTAILS EXECUTIVE PATRONAGE. By its adoption 228 federal offices will be abolished, and their duties imposed upon State officers.

Mr. Calhoun, to whom it was given to detect danger to the constitution before it was visible to most minds, and whose eloquence was but the earnest protest of the future against the present, once said that the greatest instruments of consolidation under our government were the land office, the currency, and the post office.

The constitution, as originally interpreted by its framers, left the great mass of legislation to the States, and restricted the federal government to the management of foreign affairs, and a few internal matters. Yet, so disguised under a pride of national greatness has been the tendency to consolidation, that, insensibly, one power after another has been assumed, until the general government, almost to the exclusion of the State governments, has made itself felt in all the relations of life. Its encroachments have been invisible, but constant.

With the addition of each new State, the relative greatness of the general government has been increased, and that of the individual States diminished. With increased power to reward, its offices have become more valuable.

The popular mind has associated increase of constitutional power with national development. Congress has absorbed nearly all the legislation of the country—its sessions increasing in length, while those of the State legislatures have become less frequent and shorter.

Under the administration of Mr. Jefferson, in 1802, there were but five heads of department: there are now seven. There were then but 3,806 federal officers: there are now in the employment, throughout the country, 35,456.

The adoption of the substitute will abolish 228 of these; and, with advantage to the particular interests involved, transfer their duties to those of the States.

John Randolph, of Roanoke, speaking on this subject in the Senate of the United States in March, 1826, said:

"I wish that every new State had all the lands within the State, that, in the shape of receiverships and other ways, these States might not be brought under the influence of *this ten miles square*. In other words, I wish that all the patronage of the land office was in the hands of the individual States, and not in the hands of the general government. I am the friend of State rights, and will cut down the patronage of this general government, which has increased, is increasing, and must be diminished; or we—the States—shall be not only 'shorn of our beams,' sir, but abolished quite."

Mr. Van Buren, in May of the same year, in the Senate, said: The public lands "had extended the patronage of the government over the States to a great extent;" and "subjected" those in which they were situated "to an unwise and unprofitable dependence on the federal government. No man could render the country a greater service than he who should devise some plan by which the United States might be relieved from the ownership of this property by some equitable mode." He would vote for a proposition on such terms.

In 1830, Mr. Hayne, in the Senate, said:

"More than one-half our time has been taken up with the discussion of propositions connected with the public lands, and more than one-half our acts embrace provisions growing out of this fruitful source."

In 1839, Mr. Calhoun said the discussion about their disposition consumed one-third of the time of Congress.

Mr. Speaker Boyd, in answer to an inquiry made by me, under date of May 21, 1854, says:

"I state as my deliberate opinion that during the sixteen years I have served in Congress, at least one-third of the entire time of that body has been consumed in the consideration of questions connected in one form or other with our public land system."

The Clerk of this House, Colonel Forney, in a note in reply to an inquiry on the subject, says:

"Fifteen hundred columns of the Congressional Globe and Appendix for the Thirty Second Congress are taken up with debates on public lands; and the expense to the government incurred alone by the time consumed was $143,520.

Again: THIS SUBSTITUTE NOT ONLY REDUCES THE PATRONAGE OF THE GENERAL GONERNMENT RESULTING FROM THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE PUBLIC LANDS, BUT IT TAKES THEM OUT OF THE POLITICAL ARENA. A QUESTION PURELY OF POLITICAL ECONOMY WILL NO LONGER BE MADE ONE OF PARTISAN CONTROVERSY. IT IS NON-INTERVENTION IN THE LOCAL INTERESTS AND POLITICS OF THE STATES.

I desire to discuss this subject upon elevated principles, and without appeal to party feelings. But I ask members if the disposition of the public lands has not been an element, on one side or the other, in all our political contests? It was directly connected with the great Hayne and Webster debate; and, after arraying in opposition the old and the new States, and embittering feeling at

the North and the South, has ever since affected the regulation of the tariff.

It was closely connected with all the financial measures of Gen. Jackson's administration, mixed itself up with his contest with the United States Bank, and became the suggestion of a charge in the constitution. It has ever been associated with the discussion of the power of Congress to make internal improvements; and now, when one after another of these questions have been settled or passed away, it remains with the subject of slavery to monopolize our time and embarrass legislation.

Is this never to cease? Having assisted to make and unmake Presidents for half a century, is it to continue a fund upon which individual members may draw to supply political capital for their districts? Has not the return of members to this House been made in a greater degree to depend upon the legislation of Congress upon this subject than upon any other? Do not measures, objectionable in principle, ally themselves with grants of land to force representatives to the alternative of a violation of their conviction of constitutional right, or a seeming antagonism to the interests of their constituents?

I believe, sir, there is a general desire that this should cease. I believe it to be the feeling of the country, that the public lands should be disposed of, once for all—justly and equitably—to prevent improper combinations—to reduce the length of our sessions, and enable us to legislate on other matters.

On the eve of Mr. Webster's first visit to Europe he was asked the object of his trip. His reply was, that, in addition to a desire to see the objects of natural interest, to one visiting the Old World, he wanted to get where he could see a man who had never made a bargain. I would not intimate that this expression was in any way associated with, or the result of, his political experience; but I may say, without reflection upon that great man, that the desire was by no means unnatural to any one who had been even a spectator of the legislation of Congress in reference to the public lands.

On this point I will not enlarge. Sixteen years ago, in 1839, Mr. Calhoun, in speaking of the subject, said:

"I ask not whether it would be wise to continue the old system. No, sir, a far bolder question—will it be practicable? * * *

"It is easy to see how this would end; the public domain, the noble inheritance of the people of this Union, would be squandered, or rather gambled away in the contest, and would thus be made at the same time the means of plunder and corruption, and of elevating to power the most profligate and audacious."

Has this prediction been realized? Let one of many years' experience in this House, and yet in the counsels of the country, answer. Three weeks since, speaking on a bill that has passed this House, Senator Thompson, of Kentucky, said:

"It seems to me, since I have had the honor to come to the national counsels, whether in this or the other house of Congress, the public lands have been bandied about eternally as a bribe in the shape of cession and retrocession, in the shape of graduation and of distribution, and of every imaginable project."

Of all the interests of the country, Mr. Chairman, the land or agricultural should be least affected by, or dependent upon, legislation. Upon it rest all other branches of national industry, and its value should be controlled by laws uniform and permanent. It is bad enough that the commerce of the country should be influenced by measures purely political; but trade partakes in some sort of the character of an adventure, and readily adapts itself to circumstances. Not so with land. The tiller of the soil may have a knowledge of chemistry, but he knows nothing of political chicanery. He watches the changes in the natural, not in the political elements, and looks to the ground, not to Congress, for his annual profit or the increased value of his land. And yet, if Congress issue twenty millions of land warrants as proposed by the bill of the gentleman from New York, or throw as many acres of land gratuitously, or at greatly reduced prices, upon the market one year, and none the next, the price of every man's farm will be as variable as your commercial stocks.

Sir, if you have the power, you have no moral right thus to subject the staid and sober interests of the home-staying, hard-working farmers of the country to the fluctuations of your commercial, or the tidal movements of your political sea.

Again: THE SUBSTITUTE NOT ONLY TAKES THE PUBLIC LANDS OUT OF THE POLITICAL ARENA, BUT FREES THE LAND STATES FROM A HUMILIATING VASSALAGE. They have risen up out of the wilderness under a pledge given at the origin of the government, that they should be received into the Union with equal rights with the other States; and yet, they are now fettered by a system inflicting upon them all the evils of absenteeism.

The lands of the sovereign of England may be taxed in the shire in which they lie, while those of the general government within the States are exempted and held for years at prices above their value, causing emigration to seek other localities. They, in fact, act upon the surface of the new States like the immense corporations of Mortmain, which it cost England a revolution to get rid of.

By a calculation made (by Mr. Sumner,) in the Senate of the United States, in 1849, the land States, from a forbearance to tax the lands of the general government, after survey, have lost $72,000,000. How long will the idea of a paternity of the old over the new States, prevent a practical conviction in the popular mind of their entire equality?

Dispose of the public lands within the States to the States in which they lie, under the terms of this bill, and you at once get rid of the embarrassing questions which constantly force the States to protest or memorialize against a proprietorship within their borders, which, although it extend to half their limits, they can neither tax nor raise contributions from, for the general good, and which forces you to dole out to them the small pittance of 5 per cent. upon their sales.

BUT, MR. CHAIRMAN, I HAVE OTHER ARGUMENTS IN FAVOR OF THIS BILL, LESS GENERAL IN THEIR CHARACTER, BUT NOT LESS IMPORTANT, AND WHOSE PRACTICAL FORCE MUST STRIKE EVERY ONE WHO HAS OBSERVED THE PROGRESS OF LEGISLATION IN THIS HOUSE.

If the numerous causes which have attended, within the last twenty years, the unexampled development of this country, could be analyzed, perhaps to *no one would be ascribed so much importance as that of railroads.* North, South, East, and West, in all portions of the country, and by all classes, their advantages are appreciated. Your Atlantic cities have dug through mountains to extend them to the West; and stretching them along your rivers and across your richest agricultural regions, the humblest proprietor has not hesitated to contribute, and has reaped a return in the greatly enhanced value of his land. So certain is this increased value of real estate along their line, that whole communities and States, looking to it as a result, have laid general taxes for their creation. In fact, it is now almost an acknowledged truth of political economy, and taxation for no other purpose is so popular.

Under these circumstances is there anything extravagant in the expectation on the part of the States that the general government should contribute, like every other proprietor within their limits, to the construction of railroads enhancing greatly the value of the public domain? The 5 per cent. upon the sales of the public lands within the States is now given them as a return, and in some sort acknowledgment of the benefit the lands of the government derive from the construction of ordinary roads. Is there anything so unreasonable in the call of the States upon the general government to make a similar return for the enhanced value of its land — the result of local taxation, that the humblest proprietor is made to pay—to justify the advocates of railroad grants before this House being regarded as speculators upon the public treasury, or to explain the repugnance with which some members listen even to the suggestion of such grants?

Sir, this repugnance springs from the vice in the organization of our land system, of which I have spoken. It is neither insensibility to the justice of this claim, nor a belief in the want of constitutional power, that creates this opposition with many, but an inability to decide upon interests purely local, and whose expediency must depend upon circumstances and facts peculiarly liable to perversion.

THE BILL I PROPOSE TRANSFERS THE DECISION OF THESE GRANTS TO THE LEGISLATURES OF THE STATES. If the railroads seeking them deserve encouragement, and the alternate sections reserved will compensate in value for those granted, it will be best known to the legislatures of the States in which the lands lie, and through which the roads pass. The States lose nothing; deserving rail-

roads receive encouragement; and in no event will the general government sacrifice a dollar. * * *

THIS SUBSTITUTE IS VALUABLE FOR OTHER REASONS OF MUCH IMPORTANCE, AND TO WHICH I ASK THE PARTICULAR ATTENTION OF THE HOUSE. IT WILL TRANSFER TO THE STATES THE SETTLEMENT OF THAT LARGE CLASS OF CONTESTED LAND CASES WHICH NOW COME BEFORE THE LAND COMMISSIONER IN THIS CITY FOR DECISION. IT WILL REFER TO THE STATE LEGISLATURE THOSE NUMEROUS APPLICATIONS FOR SPECIAL LEGISLATION REGARDING LAND TITLES WHICH NOW EMBARRASS THIS HOUSE, AND TO THE STATE COURTS THAT IMMENSE AMOUNT OF LITIGATION WHICH HAS BEEN EXPENSIVELY PROSECUTED IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.

Here Mr. Perkins proceeded to give an interesting account of the difficulties, delays and cost incident to the prosecution and adjustment of private land claims, especially to the citizens of Louisiana. In connection with this subject he says, he is informed by the Commissioner of the land office that "it would have been economy in the first settlers of Louisiana to have purchased anew their lands from the government, rather than to have incurred the expense of their confirmation."

Having stated the arguments in favor of the measure, Mr. Perkins anticipates and answers the objections which are supposed to exist against it in the Atlantic States, and shows conclusively, we think, that the prosperity of the old States is dependent in a great measure upon the growth of the new, and that any act of legislation which benefits the latter, must promote the prosperity of the former.

Mr. Perkins then proceeds to show that the allowance of 25 per cent. to the States for the sale and management of the public lands will enable the General Government to realize more money from that source than it does or can under the present system. The following are his views and estimates upon this branch of the subject:

BUT, SIR, I MUST HASTEN ON. IS THE PER-CENTAGE TO BE PAID BY THE LAND STATES UPON THE SALE OF LANDS WITHIN THEIR LIMITS ADJUSTED IN THE BILL SO AS TO RECONCILE CONSTITUTIONAL OBJECTIONS, AND WITHOUT BEING A GIFT OR A SALE OF THE LANDS TO RELIEVE THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT FROM EXPENSE IN THEIR ADMINISTRATION, SECURE INDIVIDUAL INTEREST, AND AT THE SAME TIME IMPOSE NO ONEROUS CONTRACT UPON THE STATES?

In the bill similar to this, introduced into the Senate in 1837, it was proposed that the States should pay over only 33⅓ p. cent. By the bill of Judge Young, of Illinois, introduced in 1841, it was proposed they should pay over 65 per cent. of the gross amount.

In fixing the amount at 75 per cent. in the present bill, the calculation has been made upon a basis intended to be strictly just towards the general government, the States, and to individuals.

The per-centage to be paid by the States is placed higher than in former bills, because—

1. There are now fewer lands unsurveyed in the States, and therefore the expense of their administration will be less.

2. In nearly all the land States there are now State land offices or agencies created for the sale of lands donated to the States by the general government, and the additional expense of administering the remaining lands within their limits will be slight.

3. I desire that the bill should meet the constitutional views of gentlemen on both sides of the House, and operate simply as a transfer of the administration of the lands to the States in which they lie, and not as a donation or sale.

The elements of the calculation upon which the per-centage is fixed at 75 per cent., I will state in a few words:

The average cost of the public lands, according to the calculation of Commissioner Wilson [Report of the General Land Office for 1853, page 47] is, per acre	14.41	cents.
Cost of surveying	2.07	"
Cost of selling and managing	5.32	"
Equal to, per acre	21.80	"

Calculating it at 22 cents per acre, if the lands sell for $1,35 per acre, which is the average price the public lands brought into the United States treasury up to June 1, 1849, [Commismissioner Young's Report for 1848, appendix, page 555,] the per-centage to reimburse the general government would be	16¼	per cent.
If sold for $1,25 p. acre, the per-cent. would be.	17 6-10	"
If sold for $1 p. acre, the per-centage would be..	22	"
If sold for 75 cents p. a., the per-cent. would be	30	"
If sold for 50 cents p. a., the per-cent. would be.	44	"
If sold for 25 cents p. a., the per-cent. would be.	88	"

	Acres.
Applying this to the actual position and amount of the public domain, the total area of public land States [exclusive of Calfornia] is	381,115,470
The total number of acres remaining unsold in the land States, [exclusive of California,] on the 30th June, 1853, is	168,178,818.48

The average length of time the land States (excluding California) have been in the Union, is within a fraction of thirty years; and within that period there has been sold 103,197,356 35-100 acres, and disposed of for schools, internal improvements, individuals and companies, seats of government, military services, salines, Indians, &c., &c., 104,194,722 89-100 acres, making a total of..... 207,392,079

Or sixty per cent. of the whole

Thirty years being the average time that the lands within the States have been offered for sale at $1,25 per acre, if we estimate that the States, under the operation of the graduation prices of the bill, which is a very fair calculation, will dispose of an equal proportion of the public lands within the next thirty years, and that being the period at the expiration of which the lands remaining undisposed of are to be relinquished to the States, there will have been parted with in that time 100,970,290 acres. Under the graduating process, these 100,907,290 acres are to be sold at prices ranging from $1,25 to 25 cents per acre, (the average rate of the bill,) and will bring $75,680,468.

It is proposed that the land States pay to the general government 75 per cent. of the gross proceeds of the sales of those lands, which will amount to.....$56,760,351

Deduct the cost of the lands to the United States—say 168,178,818 acres, at 16½* cents per acre.... 27,749,505

Leaving a profit over and above cost to the U. S. of 29,010,846

The share of the States in the gross amount sold, being 25 per cent. of $75,680,468, is.....$18,920,117

Deduct for selling, managing, and surveying 100,907,290 acres, at seven cents† per acre 7,063,510

Leaving a profit over and above cost to the land States of..... 11,856,607

* This 16½ cent is made up of—Cost..... 14.41 per acre.
Survey..... 2.07 "
16.48 "
which the government has expended, and would be entitled to be repaid, if it had surveyed all the lands ceded.

† The federal government has not surveyed all the lands ceded; therefore this seven cents is made up of—Survey..... 2.07 cents.
Sale and management..... 5.32 "
7.39 "
that the calculation may be perfectly fair, both to the States and the general government.

The number of acres remaining unsold at the end of thirty years, relinquished to the States in which they lie, will be 67,-371,528 acres.

From these calculations it appears—on the basis of the graduation price in this bill, the same as that in the bill recently passed, and the estimate of the Land Office of 22 cents per acre for cost of survey, sale, management, &c., of the public lands—that when lands are sold at—

	$1,25	p. acre, the	p.-cent.	of exp. is	18	p. c.—net yield	82
When at	1,00	"	"	"	22	" "	78
	75	"	"	"	29	" "	71
	50	"	"	"	44	" "	56
	25	"	"	"	88	" "	12
					201		299

The expense averaging about 40 per cent., and the net yield 60 per cent.

In fixing, therefore, the per-centage at 75 per cent., the federal government, besides getting rid of the vexatious questions attending the administration of the public lands, will receive in cash into the treasury 15 per cent. more from their sale, under the provisions of this bill, than under the present system.

So much for the general government. How will it affect the States?

1st. The States will gain $11,856,607 above their expense in administration of the lands within their limits.

2d. The transfer, at the end of thirty years, of the lands remaining unsold, estimated at 67,271,528 acres.

3d. The right to tax land as soon as sold, in getting rid of the exemption from taxation of government lands for five years after sale.

4th. They will secure all the aid in the construction of railroads within their limits which is now vainly sought for from Congress.

5th. The rapid sale and settlement of the lands within their limits, and the adjudication of all contested entries and disputed land titles, by their own legislatures and before their State courts.

6th. They will be freed from that species of vassalage arising from a large portion of their territory being held by the general government, and the subject of Executive influence and patronage, within their limits.

But, sir, it must be remembered, that while this bill tenders these advantages to the States, its passage by this House does not impose upon them their acceptance. By its terms, it offers merely their acceptance; giving a year within which the States may accept or not the administration of their lands. Is there a representative on this floor who will take upon himself the responsibil

ity of denying to his State legislature the right of deciding this questions? If some States accept, and others do not, to that exten the advantages we have described will result, and the present system will continue to operate exclusive of them, as it now operates exclusive of Texas, which in coming into the Union reserved the control of its own lands.

In connection with the foregoing subject, we publish the following act of Congress graduating the price of the public lands in the States.

AN ACT to graduate and reduce the price of the public lands to actual settlers and cultivators.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That all of the public lands of the United States which shall have been in market for ten years or upwards, prior to the time of application to enter the same under the provisions of this act, and still remaining unsold, shall be subject to sale at the price of one dollar per acre; and all of the lands of the United States that shall have been in market for fifteen years or upwards, as aforesaid, and still remaining unsold, shall be subject to sale at seventy-five cents per acre; and all of the lands of the United States that shall have been in market for twenty years or upwards, as aforesaid, and still remaining unsold, shall be subject to sale at fifty cents per acre; and all of the lands of the United States that shall have been in market for twenty-five years and upwards, as aforesaid, and still remaining unsold, shall be subject to sale at twenty-five cents per acre; and all lands of the United States that shall have been in market for thirty years or more, shall be subject to sale at twelve-and-a-half cents per acre: Provided, This section shall not be so construed as to extend to lands reserved to the United States, in acts granting land to States for railroad or other internal improvements, or to mineral lands held at over one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre.

SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That upon every reduction in price under the provisions of this act, the occupant and settler upon the lands shall have the right of pre-emption at such graduated price, upon the same terms, conditions, restrictions and limitations, upon which the public lands of the United States are now subject to the right of pre-emption, until within thirty days preceding the next graduation or reduction that shall take place; and if not so purchased, shall again be subject to right of pre-emption for eleven months as before, and so on, from time to time, as reductions take place: Provided, that nothing in this act shall be so construed as to interfere with any right which has or may accrue by virtue of any act granting pre-emption to actual settlers upon public lands.

SEC. 3. And be it further enacted, That any person applying to enter any of the aforesaid lands, shall be required to make affidavit before the register or receiver of the proper land office, that he or she enters the same for his or her own use, and for the purpose of actual settlement and cultivation, or for the use of an adjoining farm or plantation, owned or occupied by him or herself, and together with said entry, he or she has not acquired from the United States, under the provisions of this act, more than three hundred and twenty acres, according to the established surveys; and if any person or persons taking such oath or affidavit shall swear falsely in the premises, he or she shall be subject to all the pains and penalties of perjury.

Approved August 4th, 1854.

ARTICLE II.

Valley of the Ohio.

BY MANN BUTLER, ESQ.

Continued from page 331, vol. XII. No. 5.

Honors and rewards of Virginia to Col. Clark and the Illinois regiment. First offensive expedition from Kentucky into the Indian country by Col. Bowman. The Indian chiefs Blackfeet and Red Hawk. Capture of stations in Kentucky by Col. Byrd. Establishment of Fort Jefferson below the mouth of the Ohio river, in 1780, by Col. Clark. Second Invasion of the Indian country by Col. Clark. Settlement of the McAfees in Kentucky. Great Land Court of Kentucky. Kentucky county divided into the three counties of Fayette, Jefferson and Lincoln. Officers of these counties.

After this brilliant exploit, achieved over obstacles which might well have deterred the most energetic commanders; it was only for a moment looked upon as sufficient; it was only regarded as a stepping stone to other and richer triumphs. Detroit now presented itself in full view to our bold and indefatigable officer. "Twice has this town been in my power," he wrote to Geo. Jefferson, "had I been able to have raised only five hundred men, when I first came into the country, or when at St. Vincents, or could I have secured my prisoners, and only have had three hundred good men, I should have attempted it." Recent intelligence had reached Clark that the British force at Detroit consisted of but 80 men, many of them invalids; and that the inhabitants were exceedingly well disposed towards the American interest. Indeed Col. Clark had determined on completing his bold enterprises, by

an attack upon this point, when he received dispatches from Gov. Henry promising a re-enforcement of another batallion to complete his regiment. In consequence of this advice it was thought most prudent to postpone so distant and hazardous an expedition, until an imposing force should arrive. In the mean time, Col. Clark embarked on his galley for Kaskaskia, leaving Capt. Helm once more in the command of the town; and the superintendent of Indian affairs.

Subsequent events have fully confirmed the wisdom of this postponement of the expedition against Detroit; which all the disposeable force of the United States could not effect though frequently meditated, and which was indeed finally only effected by the treaty with Great Britain.* Had this enterprise succeeded ever so completely in capturing the fort; without the naval command of the lake, it could not have been maintained; and the captors could not have escaped surrender to the great local superiority of the enemy, and contiguity to the seat of his power. The experience of Gladwin's siege by Pontiac and Hull's campaign confirm this opinion. For the exploits which have now been related, the Legislature of Virginia in November, 1778, voted their thanks to Col. Clark and the brave officers and men under his command, for their *extraordinary resolution* and *perseverance*, in so hazardous an enterprise, and for the important services thereby rendered their country.* In September, 1779, Lieut. Gov. Page addressed the same officer a letter, accompanied with a sword, purchased by order of the General Assembly, "as a proof of their approbation," he said, "of your *great and good conduct and gallant behavior*." In addition to these honors, [much more charity confered at this period of the republic than in more prosperous times], 150,000 acres of land were granted to the Illinois regiment, which were located opposite to the Falls of Ohio, on the northwestern side of the river, under the name of "*Clark's Grant*," which it still bears. Still, there can be no doubt of the inadequacy of these rewards to the services of Col. Clark to a great commonwealth — services by which her dominion was stretched from the Atlantic to the Mississippi — an empire exceeding the territory of Great Britain and France united. Yet, in the infancy of the western country, unenchanted by the application of steam to navigation owing to the

* See Spark's Washington, vol. XII, 66.

* See Appendix.

genius of Fulton, and in an unsettled and barbarous condition, its capacity of greatness could not be fully appreciated. Nor could its conquest be ranked at its proper height in the roll of fame. The conduct to Clark of the unterrified commonwealth must therefore be viewed with some abatement of severity for not at once discovering and suitably acknowledging the full merits of Colonel Clark. These extorted the high encomium from Chief Justice Marshal, that "these bold and decisive measures, which, whether formed in a great or small scale, mark the military and enterprising genius of the man who plans and executes them."* This is indeed "*laudari a laudato.*"

The truth is, that George Rogers Clark was the master spirit of the western country from 1775, when he first visited Kentucky, until his first unfortunate campaign in 1786, hereafter to be noticed. It was the unanimous verdict of his cotemporaries, most of whom fought under his beloved banner, as Floyd and Linn, Logan and Boone. He was emphatically the founder of Kentucky, as much as he was the conqueror of the Illinois. If that bold soldier was not, in the language of the late John Randolph, of Roanoke, the American Hannibal, in the scale of his operations, he was so, in spirit and bold purpose. If he had not the legions and wealth of Carthage to support his operations, he wielded his handful of troops, and the poverty of Virginia, in the same bold, enterprising and original manner, as his great African prototype. To the mind of the author, this is a better criterion of similiar character and genius, than equality of force.

To punish the Indians for the depredations and hostilities which they had committed with fearful ferocity on the stations and hunters of Kentucky, an expedition into their own country was now determined on. The town of old Chilicothe, on the Little Miami, was selected as the object of this first considerable invasion of the Indian country on the right bank of the Ohio, by the pioneers of Kentucky. This expedition was led by Col. John Bowman, assisted by Benjamin Logan, John Holder, James Harrod and John Bulger, as captains; George M. Bedinger acted as Adjutant, and some of the most efficient men in Kentucky engaged in this expedition, to the number of three hundred. This was the *first offensive* expedition undertaken from Kentucky since the spirited incur-

* Marshall's Washington.

sion of Boone, previous to the last siege of Boonesborough already related. It thus deserves some expatiation; great expectations were entertained of it in Virginia* The party marched in the month of July, with their provisions about their persons, they were well acquainted with the ground where it was intended to strike the blow; and the movements were so well conducted as to escape discovery by the enemy. It was one of those spontaneous movements of the pioneers directed by their own sagacity and courage without the aid or countenance of public authority. The Indians of the northwest had not yet experienced any formidable invasion from Kentucky, and seem to have entertained no apprehensions of a retaliation for their annual attacks upon this most vexed and harassed land.

Yet it must not be forgotten, throughout this narrative, that the settlement of Kentucky was a flagrant outrage upon the rights of the north-western Indians. No treaty with *them* sanctioned it, whatever pretext may be alleged, under the treaty with the Six Nations at Fort Stanwix, in 1768. It is only to be justified by the paramount interests of civilization, to the wants of savage life.

Col. Bowman's party arrived within a short distance of the town, near night, and halted. It was then determined to make the attack by day-break on the next day. For this purpose Capt. Logan was detached to encircle the town on one side; while Bowman was to surround it on the other, and to give the signal for assault. Logan immediately executed his part of the plan, and waited for the signal of his commander. Day began to break, and still there was no appearance of the detachment in front. At length the Indians took the alarm and repaired to a strong cabin with port holes in it, while Logan's men took possession of the cabins left by the enemy. They moreover adopted the plan of forming a moveable breastwork out of the doors and puncheons or coarse plank of the floors, and pushing it against the Indian post. While these active measures were taking in the rear, Bowman was so fiercely attacked, as to prevent his getting near enough to give Logan the alarm agreed upon. Such was the account given the author by the late Gen. Ray, who was himself in the engagement. Yet such an engagement one would think would have proved sufficient signal to a man of Logan's well known promptitude; and it

* Jefferson's Correspondence, I, 163.

is difficult to suppose it to have been too remote to be heard; moreover, the town was evidently surprised. This alertness on the part of the enemy, in addition to information received from a negro prisoner, that Girty and a body of Mingos were near at hand and had been sent for, determined the Colonel to order a retreat. This was reluctantly begun, and instead of preserving any order, the utmost confusion took place. After the loss of several lives, the party became re-united, and the retreat was resumed in better order. The Indian town was burned, a short lived suffering to the enemy; 168 horses captured and some other spoil obtained at the expense of 6 or 7 lives. This retreat was not suffered to be made without molestation from the enemy; *Blackfeet*, the chief, who had headed an expedition against Harrodsburg, and captured Boone with his salt makers at the Blue Licks, pursued the whites with a band of about thirty warriors. He was killed; but was succeeded by *Red Hawk*, who continued the battle. Bowman, though a gallant and somewhat experienced officer, is said to have made no detachments to repulse the enemy, and our men were standing as objects to be shot at; when Capts. Logan, Harrod, Bulger and a few others mounted some pack horses and scoured the woods in every direction, rushing on the Indians wherever they could find them. These offensive steps continued till Red Hawk was killed, and the rest of the Indian party fled. Our men returned home with a loss of 8 or 9 killed in the two actions; that of the enemy was not, as it rarely happens with Indians, accurately known, but owing to the intermitted pursuit was no doubt considerable.*

The expeditions into the Indian country, which had recently been prosecuted by Col. Clark in the Illinois country, and Colonel Bowman on the Little Miami, seem at length to have roused the exertions of the British, in order to counteract their unfavorable influence upon their Indian allies. With this view a formidable

* The conduct of Col. Bowman in this expedition meets with heavy condemnation from Mr. H. Marshall, and his opportunities of information were of the highest character; yet in justice to this officer's memory, it must be stated that Gen. Ray gave the author a very different account from the current one of this battle; and allowed his old commander full credit for his conduct in this retreat, as on other occasions. He seems to have enjoyed much consideration among the hardy and sagacious pioneers to be inferred from his command at Boonesborough, either after or during its memorable siege in 1778; as well as his reinforcement of Logan's station, in the previous years. But more information can not be obtained of this gentleman, who seems from his letters to Col. Clark, to have ranked quite respectably in education, much above the generality of his compeers. The command of the first regiment of militia in Kentucky county and commission of magistrate confered upon him, confirm this character.

expedition was prepared, consisting of 200 Indians and Canadians commanded by Col. Byrd, an officer in the British service. Two, or as Boone states, six field pieces, accompanied this party, and were brought down the Big Miami, and then up Licking River. This rendered the expedition almost resistless before the stockades of Kentucky, utterly destitute of artillery as they were. The march was totally undiscovered by our people, until the 22d of June, 1780, when the enemy appeared before Ruddle's station, on the south fork of the Licking river. This is the more extraordinary, since the British party "was twelve days marching from the Ohio river to Buddle's station, and had cleared a wagon road most of the way."* The same gentleman, who furnished this statement, likewise asserts, that a similar expedition was expected to be directed against Louisville. These facts evince a most extraordinary state of confidence or carelessness.

The employment of artillery against the picketed forts of Kentucky, must have appeared less formidable to *our riflemen*, than it did to belligerents, at the first invention of these terrible arms. The cannons were moved up Licking on boats as far as the junction of the south fork of that river, whence the expedition proceeded against the fort, by land, owing to the lowness of the water.

This station had only been settled the previous year, on the easterly bank of the above named fork, and about three miles below the junction of Stoner's and Hinkston's branches of Licking. A summons to the station to surrender at discretion to his Britannic majesty's arms was immediately made by the enemy; and dreadful as the necessity was, the only alternative was death or surrender. Resistance was hopeless. The fort gates were opened, and the Indians rushed in to secure the prisoners and plunder the property.

The same scene was acted at Martin's station, higher up the South Fork, with the same result. The prisoners and plunder were hastily collected together, and the retreat was commenced with strange precipitation; so much so, that many of the prisoners could not support its rapidity; among whom were necessarily most of the women and children. These loaded with plunder according to the practice of Indians, when unable to perform their cruel task, were quickly relieved from their misery, by the tomahawk of their

* Col. Floyd's correspondence with Col. Preston of Virginia.

savage foe. Those who survived the trying hardships of Indian captivity, were dispersed among the savages, or carried to Detroit. Thence some returned, after several years' detention as prisoners. Yet deplorable as this invasion was to its immediate victims, it is a subject of astonishment, united with gratitude to Heaven, that the fury of this inroad should have been so unaccountably arrested at these two insignificant points, instead of being directed against the real stronghold of the country generally. These were utterly incompetent to have defended themselves against artillery. It is most inexplicable that the first and last expeditions into Kentucky with artillery, should have returned with such inadequate effect. How proud the contrast in favor of our indefatigable and enterprising Clark! How humiliating and disgraceful to Byrd! The former officer invaded the enemy's country with rifle troops, took his strongest forts armed with cannon; and kept possession of the country during the whole war of the revolution; while the latter with only *small arms* to oppose his *artillery*, confined himself to capturing two paltry stockades, and hurried out of the country so fast as to compel the murder of several of his most helpless prissoners, by his barbarous allies.

Such is the contrast ever existing between genius and a capacity for ordinary routine. Col. Byrd, it is said, had previously limited himself to the capture of the Licking forts, and would not extend his plan, or found too much embarrassment in moving his artillery through the forest, or his Indian auxiliaries too unmanageable, after their first success, [as is their custom] to prosecute the campaign any further.* But there is another explanation of Col. Byrd's retreat too honorable to its character, to be passed over in silence.

It is that, shocked by the irrepressible barbarities committed by the Indians, he determined to arrest his expedition, and return to Detroit.†

At the period of this irruption, there were "not three hundred fighting men north of the river [Kentucky], and these dispersed within twenty-five to forty miles, in half a dozen stockade stations."‡ Could the expedition "have been kept together for a

* Marshall, I, 109.

† The author does not now recollect precisely, his authority for this statement; yet he is confident that he received it from some old pioneer.

‡ Marshall, I, 108.

week or two, they might have depopulated the country."* On such trifling circumstances does the fate of communities *appear* to depend, no doubt, however, overruled by the laws of God's providence, and government of the universe.

To preserve the connection between the military expeditions of the last two years, 1779 and 1780, the civil events of the former have been pretermitted. It was during this year 1779, that the McAfees, a celebrated family of daring explorers, formerly mentioned as having visited Kentucky in 1773, finally effected their removal with their families to their new homes in the west. A series of misfortunes had prevented the execution of this intention. A loss of stores which they had been providing for several years, the destruction of fifty head of cattle which had been driven out to Salt river in western Virginia and left there, only postponed this darling enterprise. Well was this persevering spirit rewarded by the subsequent settlement of the family, at McAfee's station, six miles from Harrodsburg, on lands located in 1773, amidst a luxuriant soil, and a host of most attached friends. It was a family worthy of the highest praises, of noble spirit and character, acceptable in all the relations of life.

The fall of this year was memorable for the removal of a great many families from the interior of Virginia and the neighbouring States. Three hundred large family boats, says Col. Floyd, arrived at the Falls during the spring of 1779; and as many as ten or fifteen wagons might be seen of a day, wending their way to the interior of the country.

By this time, there were six stations on Bear Cross Creek, in the neighborhood of Louisville, at the Falls of the Ohio, with a population of six hundred men. The price of corn fluctuated from fifty dollars per bushel, in December 1779, to $165 per bushel in January 1780, and $30 in May of that year. The prices were given at a season of obstructed navigation, and doubtless payable in the depreciated paper currency of the times. They, however, show the increased demand of a sudden and large accession of population. This extended migration is attributed, in no small degree, to the law then adopted by the Legislature of Virginia, for the disposition of their "waste and unappropriated lands," as they were constantly termed—the great domain of the west. This

* Idem.

new land law [which is mainly attributed to the sagacity of George Mason,] authorised the appointment of four commissioners "to hear and determine all disputes relative to land claims; and to grant certificates of settlement and pre-emption to such as were entitled to them, either jointly or severally. The county of Kentucky, then embracing the present boundaries of the State, was placed under the exclusive jurisdiction of this high land court. It had appropriate judicial powers for the appointment of its officers and maintenance of its authority. It had jurisdiction over matters the most interesting to a people who had ventured everything dear to them, for the new lands in the west; it embraced the final determination of the whole landed estate of the country without appeal; unless where a party could not procure the attendance of witnesses, in which case, the claim was to be adjourned to the General Court of the State for its decision. Exceptions were made in favor of military claimants in the service of the United States, or of Virginia. These had a year from their resignation, or discharge to perfect their claims. Parties not having notice of the meeting of this court of exalted jurisdiction and summary powers, were allowed until the 1st of December 1780, to enter a caveat in the general court, and obtain a rehearing, and if right required it, a reversal of the decree of the commissioners.

The gentlemen appointed by the governor of Virginia to execute this momentous trust for Kentucky, were *William Fleming*, *Edmund Lyne*, *James Barbour* and *Stephen Trigg*, all residents of other parts of Virginia, as the act most cautiously required.

ARTICLE III.

From the United States Mining Journal.

Mining and Metallurgy of the Ancient.*)

The continual discovery of the remains of mining labors, executed at a period prior to history in this country, serves to whet our curiosity, to know more of the methods pursued, and the knowledge attained. This curiosity, it is to be feared, as far as regards

* *A popular account of the Ancient Egyptians.* Revised and abridged from his larger work. By Sir J. GARDNER WILKINSON, D. C. L., F. R. Soc., in two volumes. Illustrated with five hundred Engravings. New-York: HARPER & BRO.

our own country, is to remain unsatisfied: but in the land of high antiquity, the region of the fabulous and the historic, the researches of intelligent men are opening up a series of relics which tell of the advanced state of the science even at that remote period. In Assyria, we hear much of the employment of metals in various forms and for diverse purposes. In Egypt, the labors of Wilkinson have proved beyond question, that the Egyptians long prior to Moses, were in possesion of much ability in the working of metals and had considerable success in the management of alloys.

From the Bible we learn of the uses which were early made of the precious metals, but from the monuments now deciphered, it is clear, that the washing and working of it was known in Egypt long before, and with it, the people possessed a knowledge of the kindred arts of engraving and inlaying. The subject matter is highly interesting, and, as illustrated in the work from which we make our extracts, gives a clear conception of the perfection to which the labors of the Miner, the Metallurgist and the Gold Artificer were carried in Egypt, when other nations were using stones for tools and arms.

TIN.

"It is difficult to explain how, at that early period, so great a value came to be attached to tin, that the Phœnicians should have thought it worth while to undertake a voyage of such a length, and attended with so much risk, in order to obtain it; even allowing that a high price was paid for this commodity in Egypt, and other countries, where, as at Syrna the different branches of metallurgy were carried to great perfection. It was mixed with other metals, particularly copper, which was hardened by this alloy; it was employed, according to Homer, for the raised work on the exterior of shields, as in that of Achilles; for making greaves, and binding various parts of defensive armor; and it is remarkable, that the word kassiteros, used by the poet, is the same as the Arabic name Kasdeer, by which the metal is still known in the East. It is also called kastira in Sanscrit.

"We have no means of ascertaining the exact period when the Phœnicians first visited our coasts in search of tin; some have supposed about the year 400 or 450 before our era; but that this metal was employed many ages previously, is shown from the bronze vessels and implements discovered at Thebes, and other parts of Egypt. It cannot, however, be inferred that the mines of Britain were known at that remote period; since Spain and India may have furnished the Egyptians with tin; and the Phœnicians probably obtained it from these countries, long before they visited our distant coasts, and discovered the richness of their productive mines. It is still produced in small quantities in Gallicia and other parts of northern Spain. Ezekiel says that the Tyrians received tin, as well as other metals from Tarshish; and whether

this was in India or not, there is sufficient evidence of the productions of that country having been known at the earliest times, as is proved by the gold of Ophir being mentioned in Job. For if Phœnician ships did not actually sail to India, its productions arrived partly by land through Arabia, partly through more distant marts, established midway from India by the merchants of those [as of later] days; and we have evidence of their having already found their way to Egypt, at the early period of Joseph's arrival in that country, from the spices which the Ishmaelites were carrying to sell there. And the amethyst, hæmatite, lapis lazuli, and other objects discovered at Thebes, at the time of the third Thothmes, and succeeding Pharaohs, argue that the intercourse was constantly kept up.

"The first mention of tin, though not the earliest proof of its use, is in connexion with the spoils taken by the Israelites from the people of Midian, in the year 1452 B. C., where they are commanded by Moses to purify 'the gold and the silver, the brass, the iron, the tin, and the lead, by passing it through the fire;' its combination with other metals is noticed by Isaiah, in the year 760 before our era, who alludes to it as an alloy mixed with a more valuable substance;*) Ezekiel†) shows that it was used for this purpose in connexion with silver; and bronze, a compound of tin and copper, is found in Egypt of the time of the sixth dynasty more than 2000 years B. C.

"Strabo, Diodorus, Pliny, and other writers, mention certain Islands discovered by the Phœnicians, which, from the quantity of tin they produced, obtained the name of Cassiderites. Though their locality is not given correctly by them, it is evident they all allude to the cluster now known as the Skilly Isles; but these never produced tin, and the Phœnicians invented this story in order to conceal the fact of the mainland of Cornwall being the spot whence they obtained it. For as Strabo says, the secret of their discovery was carefully concealed, and the Phœnician vessels continued to sail from Gades [Cadiz] in quest of this commodity, without its being known from whence they obtained it; though many endeavors were made by the Romans at a subsequent period to ascertain the secret, and to share the benefits of the lucrative trade.

"So anxious, indeed, were the Phœnicians to retain their monopoly, that on one occassion, when a Roman vessel pursued a trader bound to the spot, the latter purposely steered his vessel on a shoal, preferring to suffer shipwreck, provided he involved his pursuers in the same fate, rather, than disclose his country's secret; for which he was rewarded from the public treasury.

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* Isaiah I. 25.

† Ezek. XXII. 18, 20.

"Pliny mentions a report of 'white lead,' or tin, being brought from certain islands of the Atlantic; yet he treats it as a 'fable,' and proceeds to state that it was found in Lusitania and Gallicia, and was the same metal known to the Greeks in the days of Homer by the name 'Kassiteros.' Diodorus and Strabo, after noticing the tin of Spain and the Cassiderites, affirm that it was also brought to Masillia [Marseilles] from the coast of Britain, but this was probably after it had been long known to the Phœnicians, who still kept their secret; and it was doubtless through their means that the natives of Britain prevented other foreigners going direct to the mines, supplying them, as they did, with pigs of tin, carried to Vectis, as the Isle of Wight; the established depot where the traders from the continent were accustomed to purchase the metal. And this having become the established line of commerce probably led to the choice of the neighboring port of Southampton, as the place whence the Pilgrims in later times crossed over the Seine.

GOLD.

"Spain, in early-times, was to the Phœnicians what America, at a later period, was to the Spaniards; and no one can read the accounts of the immense wealth derived from the mines of that country, in the writings of Diodorus and other authors, without being struck by the relative position of the Phœnicians towards the ancient Spaniards, and the followers of Cortez or Pizaro towards the inhabitants of Mexico or Peru.

"The whole of Spain,' says Strabo, 'abounds with mines . . . and in no country are gold, silver, copper and iron in such abundance or of such good quality; even the rivers and torrents bring down gold in their beds, and some is found in the sand;' and the fanciful assertion of Posidorius regarding the richness of the country in precious metals, surpassed the phantoms created in the minds of the conquerors of America.

"The Phœnicians purchased gold, silver, tin, and other metals from the inhabitants of Spain and the Cassiterides, by giving in exchange earthenware vessels, oil, salt, bronze manufactures, and other objects of little value, like the Spaniards on their arrival at Hispaniola; and such was the abundance of silver, that after loading their ships with full cargoes, they stripped the lead from their anchors, and substituted the same weight of silver.

"Among those bronze implements were very probably the beautiful swords, daggers, and spearheads found in this country, buried with the ancient Britons, which are of such excellent workmanship and form, that they could only be the work of a highly civilized and skilful people, and as they are neither of a Greek nor Roman type, it is difficult to attribute them to any other people than the Phœnicians.

A strong evidence of the skill of the Egyptians in working metals, and of the early advancement they made in this art, is de-

rived from their success in the management of different alloys; which, as M. Goguet observes, is further argued from the casting of the golden calf, and still more from Moses being able to burn the metal and reduce it to powder; a secret which he could only have learned in Egypt. It is said in Exodus that 'Moses took the calf which they had made, and burnt it in the fire, and ground it to powder, and strewed it into the water, and made the children of Israel drink of it,' an operation which, according to the French savan, 'is known by all who work in metals to be very difficult.'

"'Commentators' heads,' he adds, 'have been much perplexed to explain how Moses burnt and reduced the calf to powder. Many have offered vain and improbable conjectures, but an experienced chemist has removed every difficulty upon the subject, and has suggested this simple process: In the place of tartaric acid, which we employ, the Hebrew legislator used natron, which is common in the East. What follows respecting his making the Israelites drink this powder, proves that he was perfectly acquainted with the whole effect of the operation. He wished to increase the punishment of their disobedience, and nothing could have been more suitable, for gold reduced and made into a draught in the manner I have mentioned, has a most nauseous taste.

"The use of gold for jewellery and various articles of luxury dates from the most remote ages. Pharaoh having "arrayed" Joseph in vestures of fine linen, put a gold chain about his neck," and the jewels of silver and gold borrowed from the Egyptians by the Israelites at the time of their leaving Egypt (out of which the golden calf was afterwards made,) suffice to prove the great quantity of precious metals wrought at that time into female ornaments. It is not from the Scriptures alone that the skill af the Egyptian goldsmiths may be inferred: the sculptures of Thebes and Beni Hassan afford their additional testimony, and the numerous gold and silver vases, inlayed work, and jewellery represented in common use, show the great advancement they had made in this branch of art.

"But gold was known in Egypt, and made into ornaments long before, and the same mode of washing and working it is figured on the monuments of the fourth dynasty.

"The engraving of gold, the mode of casting it, and inlaying it with stones, were evidently known at the same time; they are mentioned in the Bible, and numerous specimens of this kind of work have been found in Egypt.*)

"The origin of the sign signifying gold has been happily explained by Champollion as the bowl in which the metal was washed, the cloth through which it was strained, and the dropping of the water, united into one character, at once indicative of the process and the metal.

"Much cannot of course be expected from the objects found in the excavated tombs, to illustrate the means employed in smelting the ore, or to disclose any of the secrets they possessed in metallurgy; and little is given in the paintings beyond the use of the blow-pipe, the forceps, and the mode of concentrating heat by raising cheeks of me-

* Exod. xxxii. 4.; xxvii. 9 and 11.

tal round three sides of the fire in which the crucibles were placed. Of the latter, indeed, there is no indication in these subjects, unless it be in a preceding woodcut [403, fig. c.,] ; but their use is readily suggested, and some which have been found in Egypt are preserved in the museum of Berlin. They are nearly five inches in diameter at the mouth, and about the same in depth, and present the ordinary form and appearance of those used at the present day.

"At Beni Hassan, the process of washing the ore, smelting or fusing the metal, with the help of the blow-pipe, and fashioning it for ornamental purposes, weighing it, and taking an account of the quantity so made up, and other occupations of the goldsmith, are represented, but, as might be supposed, these subjects merely suffice, as they were intended, to give a general indication of the goldsmith's trade, without attempting to describe the means employed.

"From the mention†) of ear-rings, and bracelets, and jewels of silver and gold, in the days of Abraham, it is evident that in Asia as well as in Egypt, the art of metallurgy was known at a very remote period, and workmen of the same countries are noticed by Homer‡) as excelling in the manufacture of arms, rich vases, and other objects inlaid or ornamented with metals. His account of the shield of Achilles proves the art of working the various substances of which it was made—copper, tin, gold, and silver—to have been understood at that time, and the skill required to represent the infinity of subject he mentions, was such as no ordinary artisan could possess.

"The ornaments of gold found in Egypt consist of rings, bracelets, armlets, necklaces, ear-ring, and numerous trinkets belonging to the toilet, many of which are of the time of Osirtasen I. and Thotomes III., about 3930, and 3290 years ago. Gold and silver vases, statues, and other objects of gold and silver, of silver inlaid with gold, and of bronze inlaid with the precious metals, were also common at the same time ; and besides those manufactured in the country from the produce of their own mines, the Egygtians exacted an annual tribute from the conquered provinces of Asia and Africa, in gold and silver, and in vases made of those materials.

"There was great elegance in the form of many of the oldest Egyptian vases, expecially of those of gold and silver. Much taste was also displayed in other objects as well as in the devices which ornamented them, among which may be mentioned the golden basket in the tomb of Remeses III.

"The gold mines of Egygt or of Ethiopia, though mentioned by Agatharchides and later writers, and worked even by the Arab Caliphs, long remained unknown, and their position has only been ascertained a few years since by M. Linaut and Mr. Bonomi. They lie in the Bisharee desert—the land of Bigah (or of the "Bugaitae" mentioned in the inscription of Axum) about seventeen or eighteen days journey to the southeastward from Deraw, which is situated on the Nile, a little above Kom Ombo, the ancient Ombos.

"Those two travellers met with some Cufic funeral inscriptons there, which from their dates show that the mines were worked in the years

† Gen. xxiv. 47, 53.

‡ Hom. Iliad. xxii. 74. A silver cup, the work of the Sidonians, Od. IM, 816, &c. Iliad. ii. 872 ; vi. 236 ; xvii. 474.

339 A. H., (951, A. D.), and 378 A. H. (989, A. D.); the former being in the fifth year of the Caliph Mostukfee Billah, a short time before the arrival of the Fatemites in Egypt, the latter in the fourteenth of El Azeez, the second of the Fatemite dynasty.

"They continued to be worked till a much later period, and were afterwards adandoned, the value of the gold barely covering the expenses; nor did Mohammed Ali, who sent to examine them, and obtain specimens of the ore, find it worth while to reopen them.

"The matrix is quartz: and so diligent a search did the Egyptians establish throughout the whole of the deserts east of the Nile, for this precious metal, that I never remember to have seen a vein of quartz in any of the primitive ranges there, which had not been carefully examined by their miners; certain portions having been invariably picked out from the fissures in which it lay, and broken into small fragments. The same was done in later times by the Romans; and evidences of their searching for gold in quartz veins are even found in some parts of Britain.

"The gold mines are said by Aboolfeda to be situated at El Allaga (or Ollagee): but Eshuranib (or Eshuanib), the principal place, is about three days' journey beyond Wadee Allaga according to Mr. Bonomi, to whom I am indebted for the following account of the mines. 'The direction of the excavations depends on that of the strata in which the ore is found; and the position of the various shafts differs accordingly. As to the manner of extracting the metal, some notion may be given by a description of the ruins at Eshuranib, the largest station, where sufficient remains to explain the process they adopted. The principal excavation, according to M. Linaut's measurement, is about 180 feet deep, it is a narrow oblique chasm, reaching a considerable way down the rock. In the valley near the most accessible part of the excavation are several huts, built of the unhewn fragments of the surrounding hills, their walls not more than breast high, perhaps the houses of the excavators or the guardians of the mine; and separated from them by the ravine or course of the torrent a group of houses, about three hundred in number, laid out very regularly in straight lines. In those nearest the mines lived the workmen who were employed to break the quartz into small fragments, the size of a bean, from whose hands the pounded stone passed to the persons who ground it in handmills, similar to those now used for corn in the valley of the Nile made of a granitic stone; one of which is to be found in almost every house at these mines, either entire or broken.

"The quartz thus reduced to powder was washed on inclined tables, furnished with two cisterns, all built of fragment of stone collected there; and near these inclined planes are generally found little white mounds, the residue of the operation. Besides the numerous remains of houses in this station, are two large buildings, with towers at the angles, built of the hard blackish granitic, yet luminous rock, that prevails in the district. The valley has many trees, and in a high part of the torrent bed is a sort of island, or isolated bank, on which we found many tombstones, some written in the ancient Cufic character, very similar to those at A'Sonan.'

"Mr. Bonomi's account agrees very well with those given by Agatharchides and Diodorus, who both mention the great labour of extract-

ing the gold, and separating it from the pounded stone by frequent washings; a process apparently represented in the tombs of the early time of the Osirtasens; and the descriptions of the old "Diggins" have acquired additional interest from those of the modern days.

"But in Australia and California they are carried on under more auspicious circumstances than those of old, where the workers in the mines were principally captives taken in war, and men condemned to hard labor for crimes, or in consequence of offences against the government. They were bound in fetters, and obliged to work night and day; every chance of escape being carefully obviated by the watchfullness of the guards, who in order that persuasion might not be used to induce them to relax in their duty, or feelings of compassion be excited for the sufferings of their fellow-countrymen, were foreign soldiers, ignorant of the Egyptian language.

"Such was the system in the time of Diodorus; but it is uncertain whether it was introduced under the Ptolemies, or had already existed under the later Pharaohs. "The soil," says the historian, "naturally black, is traversed with veins of marble of excessive whiteness, surpassing in brilliancy the most shining substances, out of which the overseers cause the gold to be dug, by the labor of a vast multitude of people; for the kings of Egypt condemn to the mines notorious criminals, prisoners of war, persons convicted by false accusations, or the victims of resentment. And not only the individuals themselves, but sometimes even their whole families, are doomed to this labor, with the view of punishing the guilty, and profiting by their toil."

ARTICLE IV.

(From a forth-coming work by H E. GARLAND on slavery.)

England and the Slave Trade.

Not only mankind, says a profound thinker, but all that mankind does or beholds, is in continual growth and self-perfecting vitality. Cast forth thy act, thy word, into the ever-living, ever-working universe; it is a seedgrain that cannot die—unnoticed, today, it will be found flourishing as a banyan-grove (perhaps also as a hemlock forrest) after a thousand years. Seven hundred and eighty-eight years ago, the act done was the landing of William of Normandy on the shores of England with sixty thousand fighting men under his command—the result was the battle of Hastings—the death of Harold and the conquest of England. These sixty thousand men with their wives and children stalked into the houses of the defenceless Saxons and turned them out and took

possession of their estates. The Norman built castles, wore coats of mail, bore arms, rode on horse-back, and formed a compact order from the prince to the retainer completely organized for defence—while the Saxons, driven from their mansions, stripped of their arms, and dwelling in exposed huts, were compelled to till for others the land they had once called their own—or were reduced to starvation, or driven to the green forests to find a scanty subsistence on hunting and robbing. The Norman was the master, the Saxon was the slave—a constant apprehension of revolt and revenge filled the mind of the one—while a spirit of hatred and a thirst for retaliation animated the bosom of the other. But society cannot exist on fear. The elements however discordant must be made to harmonize or it will fall to pieces. Out of this relation of master and slave grew that of Baron and Serf—then that of Landlord and Servant—and finally merry England in which all traces of two distinct and hostile people were lost in the common appellation of Englishmen ; even their hostile speech were blended into one glorious English tongue with its Bible, Prayer Book, its Shakespeare and its Milton—with its rich stores of generous and fruitful ideas and principles of human liberty.

Two hundred years ago and for a century afterwards, the continuous act done was the importation of negro slaves into the North American colonies by authority of the British government. On this subject let the Historian speak.

The English continental colonies (says Bancroft vol. 3d, chap. 24.) were always opposed to the African slave trade. Maryland, Virginia, and even Carolina alarmed at the excessive production and consequent low price of their staples, at the heavy debts incurred by the purchase of slaves on credit, and at the dangerous increase of the colored population—each showed an anxious preference for the introduction of white men, and laws, designed to restrict the importation of slaves, are scattered copiously along the records of colonial legislation. The first continental congress which took to itself legislative powers, gave a legal expression of the well formed opinion of the country by resolving that no slaves be imported into any of the thirteen united colonies.

Before America legislated for herself, the interdict of the slave trade was impossible, England was inexorable in maintaining the system, which gained new and stronger supporters by its excess.

We shall not err very much if for the century previous to the

prohibition of the slave trade by the American congress in 1776, we assume the number imported by the English, into the Spanish, French and English West Indies as well as the English continental colonies to have been collectively nearly three millions, to which are to be added more than a quarter of a million purchased in Africa and thrown into the Atlantic on the passage.

The gross returns to English merchants, for the whole traffic in that number of slaves, may have been not far from four hundred millions of dollars. Yet as at least one-half of the negroes exported from Africa to America were carried on English ships, it should be observed, that this estimate is by far the lowest ever made by any inquirer into these statistics.

In an age when the interests of trade guided legislation, this branch of commerce possessed paramount attraction. Not a statesman exposed its enormities. The public opinion of the age was obedient to materialism. Protestantism itself had, in the political point of view been the triumph of materialism over the spiritual authority of the church. The same influence exhibited itself in philosophy and letters. Philosophy had gone back to the days of its infancy, founded itself on the doctrines of Aristotle and furnished to the African no protection against oppression. The interpretation of English common law was equally regardless of human freedom. The colonial slave who sailed to the metropolis, found no benefit from touching the soil of England, but returned a slave.

The influence of the manufacturers was still worse. They clamoured for the protection of a trade which opened to them an African market. The party of the slave trade dictated laws to England. A resolve of the Commons in the days of William and Mary proposed to lay open the trade in negroes "for the better supply of the plantations;" and the statute book of England soon declared the opinion of its king and its parliament, that "the trade is highly beneficial and advantageous to the kingdom and the colonies." In 1708 a committee of the house of Commons report that "the slave trade is important and ought to be free;" in 1711 a committee once more report that "the plantations ought to be supplied with negroes at reasonable rates," and recommend an increase of the trade. In June 1712, Queen Ann, in her speech to parliament, boasts of her success in securing to Englishmen a new market for slaves in Spanish America. In 1729,

George II. recommended a provision, at the national expense for the African ports; and the recommendation was followed. At last in 1749 to give the highest activity to the trade, every obstruction to private enterprise was removed, and the ports of Africa were laid open to English competition for "the slave trade" —Such are the words of the statutes, "the slave trade is very advantagous to Great Britain." "The British senate," wrote one of its members in February 1750, "have this fortnight been pondering methods to make more effectual that horrid traffic of selling negroes, it has appeared to us that six and forty thousand of those wretches are sold every year to our plantations alone."

In the commonwealth of Virginia, the planters behold with dismay the increase of negroes. A tax is imposed to check their importation—but in 1726 the deputy-governor announces to the general assembly that "the interfering interest of the African company has obtained the repeal of that law."

Long afterwards a Statesman of Virginia, in full view of the course of colonial legislation and English counteracting authority, unbiased by hostility to England, bore true testimony that "the British government constantly checked the attempts of Virginia to put a stop to this infernal traffic."

What was the motive for carrying on the inhuman trade—The statute tells us—*the slave trade is very advantageous to Great Britain.* The spirit of commerce had triumphed, and humanity was trodden under foot. The African race may well rejoice in the result, nevertheless, the crime of murder and of men-stealing must forever stain the character of England.

But there was another motive for imposing this burthen on the colonies which aggravates the crime. Let us hear—*the white man emigrating became a dangerous free man!*—it was quite sure that the negroes of that century would never possess republicanism; their presence in the colonies increased dependence. This reasoning was avowed by "a British merchant" in 1745 in a political tract entitled, "The African Slave Trade the Great Pillar and Support of the British Plantation Trade in America:" "were it possible for white men to answer the end of negroes in planting," it is there contented, "our colonies would interfere with the manufactures of these kingdoms. In such case indeed we might have just reasen to dread the prosperity of our colonies; but while we can supply them abundantly with negroes we need be under no

such apprehensions. Negro labor will keep our British colonies in a due subserviency to the interests of their mother country; for while our plantations depend only on planting by negroes, our colonies can never prove injurious to British manufactures, never become independent of their kingdom." This policy of England knew no relenting. "My friends and I," wrote Oglethorpe, "settled the colony of Georgia and by charter were established trustees. We determined not to suffer slavery there, but the slave merchants and their adherents not only occassioned us much trouble, but at last got the government to sanction them." South Carolina in 1760, from prudential motives, attempted restrictions, and gained only a rebuke from the English ministry—Great Britain steadily rejected every colonial limitation of the slave trade, instructed the governors on pain of removal, not to give even a temporary assent to such laws; and but a year before the prohibition of the slave trade by the American congress in 1776, the Earl of Dartmouth illustrated the tendency of the colonies and the policy of England, by addressing to a colonial agent those memorable words—"We cannot allow the colonies to check or discourage in any degree, a traffic so beneficial to the nation."

Such were the motives for keeping up this nefarious traffic for more than one hundred years—to secure commercial prosperity to England—and to plant in the bosom of the colonies an ignorant and dangerous population who could never rival the manufacturers at home—and would ever suppress the spirit of independence in the colonists from a fear of insurrection among their own slaves—kind guardian benevolent England! But all those things were overruled by a wise Providence. The human calculations of commercial cupidity, were speedily brought to nought and conclusions, the very reverse of British hopes were evolved from this relation of master and slave—it did kindle a spirit of independence that could not be repressed—and created such a feeling of loyalty in the slave to his master, as made the latter a more formidable enemy, because he felt secure at home while absent in the tented field.

The captivity of Joseph was the salvation of Isreal, but the brethren who sold him into Egypt, were not the less guilty of their brother's blood.

ARTICLE V.

From De Bow's Review.

Culture and Commerce of Cotton in India.

By Dr. J. F. ROYLE of England.

MATERIALS for food and for clothing, both equally necessary for men in a civilized state of society, are yielded in probably equal proportions by the animal and vegetable kingdoms. The flesh of various animals, wool and silk of different kinds being contributed by the former, as the cereal grains, pulses and roots, with flax, hemp and cotton, are yielded by the latter, and form the food and clothing of millions of the human race. Though the first coverings of men may have been formed of skins, the wool of sheep and the hair of goats were early employed for such purposes in Northern Asia and Southern Europe, as silk no doubt was in China. Hemp was cultivated in the north of Europe, and flax in Egypt, while COTTON has, from the earliest periods, been considered to be characteristic of India. Though the uncertain nature of Hindoo chronology prevents us from guessing at the period when it was first employed, there is little doubt that it must have been so from the earliest ages of Hindoo civilization: for being indigenous in their country, it could not fail to be noticed by its inhabitants; first, from the brilliancy of its golden inflorescence; and secondly, from the dazzling whiteness of its bursting fruit. This being filled with seeds, enveloped in a material so soft, so white, and so fibre-like as cotton, could hardly fail to be gathered even by the most incurious. On gathering, one would almost involuntarily twist it into a thread, and thus appear to re-discover the patriarchal art of spinning. Other plants have their useful flax-like fibres concealed under bark, or in other vegetable matter: but cotton, on the bursting of the pod, like wool at the birth of the lamb, is at once revealed to view. As this must be separated from its skin, so the other requires only to be pulled off its seed, to be ready for being spun into thread. The father of History, in his account of India, says: "The wild trees in that country bear fleeces in their fruit, surpassing those of sheep in beauty and excellence; and the Indians use cloth made from these trees."

Having a thread, the art of weaving would be readily discovered, as that of platting rushes, slender stems and strips of leaves, seems to have been universally practised. But much ingenuity must have been expended before even the most common loom was invented. Weaving was well known to all the civilized nations of antiquity: as, to the Egyptians, the Assyrians, the Chinese, and Hindoos. The culture of flax, and the processes of weaving, are represented in the ancient monuments of Egypt; and Joseph was by Pharaoh arrayed in fine linen. The Israelites, on their departure from that country, were acquainted not only with weaving, but with dyeing. The curtains of the Tabernacle were blue, purple, and scarlet. The former art is sometimes stated to have been discovered in Assyria, and its results we see represented in the monuments disinterred by the energy of a Layard, and interpreted by the genius of a Rawlinson. They are

noticed in the not less creditable relics of the ancient Hindoos, that is, their Vedas and the Institutes of Menu.

But the art of weaving was not confined to the Old World, for Columbus found cotton abundant on his first arrival in the West Indies; and the early Spanish historians describe it as forming the chief clothing of the Mexicans; and cotton fabrics of different kinds formed a part of the presents sent by Cortez to Charles V. Magellan saw it among the Brazilians: and it has of late years been discovered in the ancient Peruvian tombs, along with cloth of a black and white check, not unlike some modern patterns. We may, therefore, readily concede, what botanists maintain, that the Indian and American cotton plants are perfectly distinct as species. Though a common kind was grown at an earlier period, the United States are described as receiving their fine cotton seeds from one of the West India Islands about the year 1786. The culture was soon carried from the *sea islands* of the coast of Carolina into the interior and *uplands* of Georgia, and shortly afterwards from the Atlantic States to those which lie along the Gulf of Mexico, and latterly into Texas.

Celebrated as India has been, from all antiquity, for the production of cotton, and for the excellence of her calico, as well as for the marvellous beauty of her musline manufacture, it seems unaccountable to see Indian cotton occupying the lowest place in price currents, and described as inferior in quality, dirty in condition, and deficient in supply. We hear, moreover, of her hitherto matchless fabrics, and the much-desired objects of commerce for probably 3,000 years, beaten out of even her home market by the comparatively recent but now gigantic cotton manufactures of England. The latter effect has no doubt been produced by the joint influence of the persevering ingenuity of her mechanics, and the untiring power of steam, aided by an abundant supply of the raw material from a variety of sources. The alleged failure of India to produce increasing quantities of superior cotton has been ascribed to a variety of causes—to the depressing effects of fiscal regulations, and to the want of easy means of transit; sometimes to the baneful influence of middlemen, and the extortionate demands of money-lenders; seldom to poverty of soil or to unsuitableness of climate, or to the unfitness of Indian cotton for English machinery. Some who complain seem to forget the possibility of change, even in an age of innovations, for they adduce grievances which have years before been abolished, and state as general facts what, on examination, prove to be only local incidents. Few inquire whether the native cultivator participates in the anxiety which is displayed for his improvement or is likely to be rewarded for any extra labor he may bestow on a new culture, or the merchant for the risk he incurs in exporting to an ever-varying market. In such a case, the difficulty in ascertaining the truth is as great as it is important that it should be ascertained, in order that impediments should be removed, and exertion applied to improve the culture of the plant and to the careful picking of its produce, as this could hardly fail to be of benefit to the natives of the country, and to the extension of their commerce.

Next to the grain of the cereal grasses, Cotton is probably the natural product upon which the comfort and prosperity of several nations depend more than upon any other. It may be sufficient to observe

that if it is beneficial for America to produce, and for England to purchase, the raw material for her gigantic manufacture, it is equally so for India to consume what she produces within her natural limits, with the aid and for the use of her hundred millions of cotton-clad inhabitants. To those who have not paid attention to the subject, it may appear that we exaggerate its importance, when we connect the welfare of nations with what may to them appear so very trivial a matter as the hair, or rather wool-like covering, of a seed; but let us for an instant, without on the present occasion mentioning all the countries where cotton is produced, take a glance at the great producers and consumers of this not less elegant than useful product of the vegetable kingdom.

§ 1. Rise of the Cotton Manufacture in Great Britain.

To England, a regular supply of cotton, and its price, is a subject of paramount importance, even though the manufacture here is of comparatively recent origin; for any interruption in the supply of the raw material is not a question of mere inconvenience, or of the profitable employment of capital, but one of vital statistics; for it deprives hundreds of thousands of her industrious population not only of regular employment, but of their daily bread. In order fully to appriciate the importance of this manufacture, we may briefly notice its origin and rapid extension, as well as connect this with the effects on India.

The cotton manufacture was no doubt established in India long before we find it noticed in any reliable history. The natives of that country early attained excellence in the arts of spinning and weaving, employing only their fingers and the spinning-wheel for the former; but they seem to have exhausted their ingenuity when they invented the hand-loom for weaving, as they have for ages remained in a stationary condition. From India the culture of the plant and manufacture of cotton spread into the south of Persia and into Egypt. By the Mahomedans both were carried wherever their arms extended their conquests. Mr. Baines, whom we have chiefly consulted for the historical facts, observes it as "extraordinary, that a branch of industry so apt to propagate itself, should have lingered 1,300 years on the coast of the Mediterranean, before it crossed that sea into Greece or Italy."* Cotton seems to have been first cultivated in Spain by the Mahomedans as early as the 10th century, and the manufacture to have been established in Italy in the beginning of the 14th century.

It has been stated that the cotton manufacture has existed in England for three centuries, for the making of cottons at Manchester and Bolton is spoken of in the years 1520 and 1552; but there is undoubted evidence that the "cottons" of Manchester, like the Kendal and Welsh "cottons" of the present day, were a coarse kind of "woolens." The exact period of the introduction of the cotton manufacture into England is unknown, but cotton-wool, for the purpose of making candlewicks, was imported as early as 1298, and from the Levant frequently at the beginning of the 16th century. Though no mention earlier than 1641 has been found in the true cotton manufacture, Mr. Baines is of opinion that the art was imported from Flanders by the

* History of the Cotton Manufacture in Great Britain. By E. Baines, jun., Esq.

crowd of Protestant artisans who fled from Antwerp in 1585, some of whom settled in Manchester, and were patronized by the clergy of its church. In 1641 the manufacture seems to have been well established at Manchester, for several kinds of cotton goods were supplied for the home as well as for the foreign market. About 1739 and 1740, East Indian yarns, we learn, were commonly used for the finer kinds of goods, and "to the year 1760, the machines employed were nearly as simple as those of India." In 1766, the annual value of the cottons made was estimated at £600,000.

But at this period a rapid increase was about to take place, from the numerous happy inventions which were to abridge labor and multiply produce. In 1738 Wyatt and Paul took out a patent for spinning by rollers; thirty years latter, Arkwright perfected a similar machine; carding by cylinders was invented by Paul in 1748, and from 1764 to 1767, Hargreaves completed the spinning-jenny. When these several machines were invented, yarns could be supplied in any quantity and of improved quality, so that weavers could obtain as much as they required and at a reasonable price, and manufacturers could use warps of cotton; for up to about the year 1773 linen yarn was used as the warp for nearly all cotton goods in this country. About this time, the imitation of Indian calicoes was successfully attempted, and "Blackburn became the principle mart of that description of goods" which "now constitutes by far the largest branch of the manufacture." (*Baines*, l. c., p. 332.) The machines hitherto invented not being adapted for the finer kinds of yarns, the *mule*-jenny was invented and completed by Crompton in 1779.

Attempts were made as early as 1780, both in Lancashire and Glasgow, to manufacture the more delicate and beautiful muslins of India, with weft spun by the jenny; but the "attempt failed, owing to the coarseness of the yarn. Even with Indian weft, muslins could not be made to compete with those of the East. But when the mule was brought into general use in 1785, both weft and warp were produced in this country sufficiently fine for muslins," and they soon "so completely succeeded as to banish all fear of the competition of Indian goods." In this year Arkwright's machines were thrown open to the public. Though invented by others, they owed their perfection to his finishing hand. The astonishing extension of the manufacture which immediately followed, showed that the nullification of he patent was a great national advantage.

Water was early substituted for hand-power in turning the machines. This was, in its turn, supplanted by the all-pervading agency of steam, and the factory system became, by degrees, established in England.

Hitherto the cotton manufacture had been carried on almost entirely in the houses of the workmen, as it still is in India, and has been from the remotest period. The series of ingenious inventions seem to have reached their culminating point in the self-acting mule, which seems a thing instinct with life—drawing out, twisting, and winding-up many thousand threads with infallible precision and unfailing strength. But the cotton manufacture would necessarily have been brought to a check, from the difficulty of training hands fast enough to weave all the cotton that was spun into thread. But the invention of the power-

loom by Dr. E. Cartwright, not himself a mechanic or a manufacturer, overcame even this difficulty, and the only impediment then experienced was, from the necessity of frequently stopping the machinery, in order to dress the warp with starch.* This was at first effected by a dressing-machine, and now by an improved sizing apparatus. Every difficulty, as it occured, was overcome, and each then assisted in still further extending, and, at the same time, cheapening the cotton manufacture, and thus magnifying the power and prosperity of Great Britain; at the same time inflicting disastrous consequences on even so anciently established and apparently perfect a manufacture as that of calicoes and muslins of India. So early as 1793 we find a Select Committee of the Court of Directors of the East India Company upon the subject of the cotton manufacture, stating that "every shop offers British muslin for sale, equal in appearance, and of more elegant patterns than those of India, for one-fourth, or perhaps more than one-third, less in price."

Having thus taken a cursory view of the history of the manufacture in this country, we may briefly notice the different operations to which the cotton is subjected, and. for this purpose, we shall use Mr. Baines's words: "Let us briefly review the different processes through which the cotton goes, in its conversion into cloth, all of which are performed in many of the large spinning and weaving mills. The cotton is brought to the mills in bags, just as it is received from America, Egypt, or India, and is then stowed in warehouses, being arranged according to the countries from which it may have come. It is passed through the *willow*, the *scutching-machine*, and the *spreading-machine*, in order to be opened, cleaned, and evenly spread. By the *carding-engine* the fibres are combed out, and laid parallel to each other; and the fleece is compressed into a sliver. The sliver is repeatedly drawn and doubled in the *drawing-frame*, more perfectly to straighten the fibres, and to equalize the grist. The *roving-frame*, by rollers and spindles, produces a coarse and loose thread, which the *mule* ar *throstle* spins into yarn. To make the warp, the twist is transferred from cops to bobbins, by the *winding-machine*, and from the bobbins at the *warping-mill* to a cylindrical beam. This beam being taken to the *dressing-machine*, the warp is sized, dressed, and wound upon the weaving-beam. The latter is then placed in the *power-loom*, by which machine the *shuttle*, being provided with cops of weft, the cloth is woven."—(*Baines*, l. c., p. 243.) It is obvious that if the fibre, or staple, as it is called, of different cottons vary in length or in strength, some may be able to undergo this rough treatment, while others may escape from it, and yet be well suited to the delicate fingering of the human machine.

§ 2. Imports of Cotton into Great Britain.

Every difficulty that has occured has been successively overcome;

* "The consumption of flour in the cotton manufacture is estimated at not less than 42,301,584 lbs. a year, or 215,824 barrels (of 196 lbs.) or 177,256 loads (of 240 lbs. each.)"—*Burn's Commercial Glance for* 1832. "Bengal flour (then), lately introduced into this country, is found to answer well for dressing"—*E. Baines.* "If 2½ oz. for flour be allowed for sizing each pound of twist yarn, it will make 28,437,500 lbs. of flour, or 118,500 packs, or 79,000 quarters of wheat per annum; being nearly ½ per cent., or 1-200th part of the whole wheat consumed in the United Kingdom."—*J. Baynes.*

but one great difficulty still remains, that is, a regular supply of the raw material, not only at moderate prices, but in annually increasing quantities. Mr. J. Baynes, in 1846, calculated that "the consumption of cotton, for the last thirty years, has increased at the compound ratio of six per cent. each year, thereby doubling itself every twelve years." The supply of cotton ought, therefore, to continue to increase regularly, in order to keep the manufacturing population in full and healthy employment. This great object, it appears to us, can only be effected by multiplying the sources, and having so extensive a basis of supply as to counterbalance any local peculiarities of seasons, and to make the annual increase of several places keep pace with the annually increasing demand. Before proceeding to consider the capabilities of different countries to meet, not only the ordinary, but this constantly increasing consumption, it will be instructive to take a cursory view of the way in which the present enormous and comparatively sudden demand has hitherto been met.

Though we have notices of the import of cotton in small quantities at earlier periods, in the year 1697 it amounted only to about two millions of pounds. In 1775, the average import was only four times what it had been in the beginning of the century, and chiefly from the Mediterranean and Levant. In the year 1786, the quantity imported amounted to 19,475,025 pounds, in the following proportions, from—

British West Indies,	5,800,000
French and Spanish Colonies,	5,500,000
Dutch,	1,600,000
Portuguese,	2,000,000
Smyrna and Turkey,	5,000,000
Total,	19,900,00

"The purposes for which the cotton was used, in the year 1787, are thus stated." (*Baines's Hist*, p. 216.)

Calico and Muslines,	11,600,000
Fustians,	6,000,000
Mixtures with Silk and Linen,	2,000,000
Hosiery,	1,500,000
Candle-wicks,	1,500,000
Total,	22,600,000

The first notice we have of cotton being imported from India is in 1783, when 114,133 pounds were obtained from thence; but in the year 1790, as much as 422,207 pounds, in consequence of an order from the Court of Directors of the East India Company. The export of cotton from the United States was little thought of at this period; for in 1792, Mr. Jay, the American negotiator of a commercial treaty between the United States of North America and Great Britain, stipulated that no cotton should be imported into the latter from the former; the object being to prohibit, in American vessels from the United States, such articles as they had previously imported from the West Indies. But small quantities of the short staple cotton had, previous to this, been grown in North America.

In 1784, an American ship, which imported 8 bags of cotton into Liverpool, was seized, on the ground that "so much cotton could not be the produce of the United States." (*Macgregor's Commercial Statistics*, vol. iii., p. 453.) In 1790, 81 bags were exported to Europe from the United States. The total of the imports into this country in that year amounted to 31,447,605 pounds, and increased in 1800 to 56,010,732 pounds. Though the import increased so much at the end of the century, it did not materially increase for the next fourteen years—being an average of 66 millions of pounds annually, until the conclusion of the war in 1814. In 1815, the import amounted to 100 millions of pounds. Subsequent to this period, the increase has not only been rapid, but most extraordinary, as may be seen in the average for periods of five years

		Average increase.
From 1815 to 1819 . .	118,267,611 lbs.	
" 1820 to 1824 . .	152,201,829 "	33,934,218 lbs.
" 1825 to 1829 . .	205,665,011 "	53,463,182 "
" 1830 to 1834 . .	280,918,826 "	75,253,815 "
" 1835 to 1839 . .	415,039,185 "	134,120,359 "
" 1840 to 1844 . .	586,507,757 "	171,468,572 "
" 1845 to 1849 . .	629,144,967 "	43,637,210 "

The author is indebted to the kindness of G. R. Porter, Esq., of the Board of Trade for informing him that the imports from all countries have been, for the year 1847, 474,707,615; for 1848, 713,020,161; and for 1849, 775,469,000 lbs.

In the year 1846, when Mr. J. Baynes made his calculations, and when there was a deficiency of cotton, in comparison with the consumption, he said: "If the consumption of cotton continues to increase in the same ratio which it has done during the last twelve years—all other things being the same—the cotton required twelve years hence, say for the year 1858, will be—

		To be supplied—	
Great Britain, .	3,200,000 bales.	From U. States,	5,055,000 bal.
Continent, . .	1,656,000 "	" other sources,	755,000 "
United States, .	954,000 "		
	5,810,000 "		5,810,000 "

or upwards hf 5,000,000 of bales of cotton from the United States twelve years hence."

The latest progress of consumption and supply has not kept pace with these anticipations.

During the year 1849 there were imported—

From the United States, . . .	1,477,512	bales of 300 lbs.
" Brazil, ...	163,445	"
" East Indies, ...	182,079	"
" Egypt, ...	72,727	"
" West Indies and other parts, .	9,485	"
Total, ...	1,905,248	"

A manufacture employing so vast an amount of raw material must necessarily be of immense importance. In the year 1824, Mr. Huskisson considered the total value of the cotton manufacture to amount to £33,500,000. This has since been considered too high an estimate

for that period. Mr. McCulloch, in the year 1833, estimated its value to be £34,000,000, and the amount of capital employed in the manufacture to amount to about the same sum; and Mr. E. Baines, who arrived at his result by a totally different process, valued it at £31,338,698 in the same year, and considered Mr. McCulloch's estimate of £34,000,000 as the amount of capital invested in the manufacture to be very moderate. The population of the counties where the chief cotton manufactures are carried on was only 781,850 in the year 1780, but in fifty years it had increased about two millions, for it amounted to 2,753,685 in the year 1831. "The number of individuals directly employed in the manufacture, with those dependent on them for subsistence, must amount to 1,500,000," and now it is supposed to be as much as one-tenth of the population. The exports of cotton goods are valued at twenty-five millions a year, or one-half of the exports of the produce and manufactures of Great Britain, and employ 300,000 tons of shipping for freight. It is stated that, up to the year 1834, cottons to the enormous value of £570,000,000 had been sent from this country to foreign markets, thus furnishing materials for clothing to the people of almost every region of the globe, at the same time benefiting the nation itself by the production of clothing at so much less cost, and of so much better quality, than that to which the mass of the people had been accustomed.

Considering the variety of interests at stake, and the numbers of people employed, directly and indirectly, it is not surprising that any deficiency of the raw material should be contemplated with so much apprehension, not only in Lancashire, but throughout the country; and as the largest supplies come from America, so are the crops of that country looked to as signs of progressive prosperity or of approaching difficulties. The failure of the American crop in the year 1846, as in the very last season, caused a considerable rise in the price of cotton; and it was calculated that in that year an advance in price of 2*d.* a pound required an increased payment by this country of £4,000,000 sterling. In this year, the increase of price has caused many spinners and manufacturers of coarse yarns and heavy goods, either to stop their mills or to work short time, and of course to throw many of their workmen out of full and regular employment. It has been well ascertained that, "with high prices of the raw material, the present enormous production of cotton manufactures will not, and cannot, be taken off by the markets of the world."—(*Manchester Guardian*, Jan. 22, 1850.) Such being the paramount importance of a regular supply and moderate price of the raw material, we cannot but expect that the enlightened Government of this country must have been assured that such methods as were appropriate to its various colonies had been adopted for extending this supply; and that the Directors of the East India Company cannot but have promoted the culture of cotton in the magnificent empire intrusted to their sway. Merchants and manufacturers, also, so keenly alive to what is not only for their own interest, but for the benefit of all, must individually and collectively have concerted such measures as were suitable for the different natures and habits, as well as to the different states of civilization of the several nations of the globe. They, better than any other class, know that even commerce, though it never flourishes

more than when left free and unshackled, yet in many situations would never have existed if it had not in a measure been forced, by the more civilized taking to those who are less so, the produce of their skill, to exchange for the rude product of some distant land. Of nations possessing a soil and climate fitted for such a production, some require only to bo informed of, others to be induced to do, what is obviously for their own benefit.

ARTICLE VI.

Savings Banks—How they get rich.

We commend the following remarks, touching the operations and results of "Savings Banks," in New York, to the consideration of the Public economists and Legislators of our own state. Owing to the rapid growth of St. Louis, Savings Banks will in a few years constitute an important element in the financial affairs of this city; and results similar to those flowing from the New York institutions may be expected here. The subject is worthy of the attention of our legislature. A law requiring the Banks to pay all deposites which may not be claimed within a certain period—say ten years—into the state treasury, would remedy the evils which are supposed to exist in the New York system.

(From the Merchants' Magazine.)

The Albany *Atlas* publishes under the above caption some editorial remarks and suggestions which deserve the attention of our state legislatures. In republishing them, our contemporary of the *Wall Street Journal*, who has "printed column after column on the subject," trusts that the coming legislature of New York will thoroughly investigate it. The *Atlas* says, as will be seen below, that a million dollars, including interest, of unclaimed deposits, are lying in the savings banks of New York, while the editor of the *Journal* thinks that instead of that amount, there are not less than five millions of dollars due the widows' and orphans' fund. We should say that there were at least $3,000,000 in all the savings banks, now unclaimed. We therefore hope the subject will be investigated not only in New York, but in some other States. We shall endeavor to recur to the subject, in the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, at an early day. In the meantime we give below the remarks of the *Atlas*:—

Some of the most magnificent structures in New York and Philadelphia are savings banks, built from the deposits of the "labor-

ing people," and to many it seems a sort of mystery how this can be. Men grow rich, build fine houses, sport carriages, and make a great dash in the world, out of the successful management of these same "benevolent institutions," and a good many people wonder how this can be.

Depositors die without drawing out their deposits. They are strangers and no heir appears to claim the money. Many deposit secretly—some actuated by a miserly and avaricious disposition, some to avoid publicity and to evade creditors, and when they die the secret of their deposit dies with them. These unclaimed deposits remain, and are regarded as the legitimate property of somebody besides the depositors. This is one source of profit, and a very large one. Savings banks, as a general thing, are connected with banks of discount and deposit, and whatever the theory may be, in regard to investment, the deposits in some shape come to be substituted for, or at all events used as capital on which the latter banks operate. Judiciously managed, the banks of discount and deposit pay a dividend (including surplus fund) of from eight to twelve per cent. This leaves a margin of from three to seven per cent between the interest paid and the interest received on the deposits, and this is an other source of profit. There may be, and doubtless are, other advantages derived from the use of the deposits, but these alone show how this sort of "philanthropic institutions" may be and are made to pay.

Now, we by no means intend to say one word against savings banks, against their policy when established, or the manner in which they are generally managed. We regard them as good things, and beneficial to the people. But their claim to the character of benevolent institutions is apocryphal, to say the least of it. There is one thing in which the people in this State have an interest, rights which they should insist upon, and we affirm that the legislature fails in its duty if it does not provide for the enforcing of these rights. When a man dies without kindred and no heir appears to claim his estate, it goes by the law to the State, and its proceeds go into the public treasury, to be disposed of as the people through their representatives may direct. This is right, in strict accordance with the principles of natural equity, for property which no living individual has labored for, which no individual living has created or accumulated, nor has any legal right to appropriate, should be used and disposed of for the benefit of all.

There are now to-day lying in the savings banks of this State, according to the most intelligent estimate, more than one million, including interest, of unclaimed deposits. These deposits (assuming that they have not been squandered or applied to individual uses) were made in small sums, by strangers, foreigners, men without known kindred, by sailors, soldiers, servant men and servant women, who have "died and made no sign." These deposits have lain there for years, some ten, some twenty, some thirty,

and some forty or fifty years, and no heir ever has nor ever will in all probability, appear to claim them. To whom do these heirless treasures belong? Not to the trustees of these institutions, for they are abudantly paid for the care bestowed upon their management. Not to the other depositors, for they can claim only their own. They belong of right and by the law of the land to the public treasury, upon the principle that the State is heir to the heirless.

Should not the State claim its own? Is anybody wronged by it? Are anybody's rights invaded? If it is asked, What if the heirs appear to claim the inheritance? is not that inheritance as safe in the hands of the State as in those of the trustees? And will not the State be as ready to restore it to the rightful heir as the trustees will be? And see what good could be done with this million. These unclaimed deposits were made as we said, by sailors, soldiers, servant men and women, and laboring poor people. Let them be applied for asylums, schools, and hospitals for the poor, the class that furnishes them. In this way the duty and the interests of the State will be served, the right thing will be done, and no man will be wronged. There are other matters connected with some of these "philanthropic institutions" which the legislature should understand, and which the people should know, but of which this may not be the proper time to speak.

JOURNAL OF DISCOVERIES AND IMPROVEMENT IN THE ARTS.

From the Mining Magazine.

GALVANIZED IRON.

The preservation of iron from oxidation or rust, for a series of years engaged the attention and taxed the ingenuity of practical and scientific minds, and a variety of processes had been suggested and tried without producing satisfactory results, as none were found to stand a test of time when exposed at the same time to the destructive influence of atmospheric changes. The researches of Sir Humphrey Davy, in 1824, at length threw a new light on this important subject, and the concurrent testimony of Brande and Faraday, of England, and Professors Morse and Henry, of our own country, backed by the acquired practical experience of thousands of consumers, have long since established the fact that iron prepared by what Davy termed the "galvanizing" process, is

entitled to take precedence of all other metals, for the several uses to which it may be applied. The French Marine Commission have recommended its use in the French Navy, and J. W. P. Lewis, Esq., an accomplished engineer of Philadelphia, who speaks from actual observation, and careful notice of the results of several experiments made on galvanized iron, fully coincides in the views taken by Brande and others, that iron, when galvanized, is fully protected against rust, and we hope ere long to see it universally adopted in every section of the country.

The principal establishment at present engaged in its manufacture is that of McCullough & Co., who, in 1847, erected works on an extensive scale, at North East, Cecil county, Md., on the line of the Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad, for the manufacture of all kinds of sheet and flue iron. They have also just completed an extensive rolling mill in the same county, on the Big Elk Creek, about two miles from Elkton, Md., operated by water-power, with a fall of over twenty feet. The fly wheel of this mill is over twenty feet in diameter, weighs 40,000 pounds, and is capable of making ninety revolutions per minute. The rolls are thirty-six inches in length and twenty-four in diameter, and are calculated expressly for the manufacture of the galvanized sheet iron, for which purpose these new works were designed. The sheets are rolled from the best charcoal blooms, and have been found far superior to the English make, as they will work into many articles for which the foreign will not answer, being too brittle and not suitable for flanging or seaming, as practised in metal roofing, being liable to crack or break by that process, and consequently making the roof imperfect; whereas the iron from McCullough & Co.'s is so malleable as to entirely obviate that objection. It is seamed on in the same way as tin, and is now being very generally used in place of the latter, being cheaper and more permanent. The foundry of Mr. Huston, as well as many others in this locality, and the Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank in Chestnut street, Philadelphia, are roofed with corrugated sheets of this material, which for beauty and durability cannot be excelled. The iron is first rolled at the works, and then sent to their establishment in Wilmington, where it is galvanized and prepared for the market.

BANKS AND

INDIANA

(Prepared expressly for

Statement showing No., Names, Location, Capital, Stocks
filed by the

Names of Banks.	Where Located.	Capital.	Notes Issued.
Bank of Connersville	Cennersville,	$1,000,000	$834,875
State Stock Bank of Indiana	Peru,	300,000	200,300
Government Stock Bank	Lafayette,	300,000	91,770
Merchant's Bank	Same Place,	200,000	50,000
Prairie City Bank	Terre Haute,	300,000	207,340
Southern Bank of Indiana	Terre Haute,	200,000	80,600
Wabash Valley Bank	Logansport,	300,000	208,000
State Stock Bank	Same Place,	500,000	214,086
Gramercy Bank	Lafayette,	200,000	102,558
Indiana Stock Bank	Laport,	250,000	102,348
Plymouth Bank	Plymouth,	100,000	55,182
Drovers' Bank	Rome,	250,000	51,844
Public Stock Bank	Newport,	200,000	121,314
Bank of North America	Newport,	100,000	60,030
State Stock Security Bank	Newport,	250,000	100,000
Traders' Bank	Indianapolis,	300,000	137,566
Western Bank	Plymouth,	200,000	100,065
Canal Bank	Evansville,	500,000	70,000
Fayette Co. Bank	Connersville,	500,000	81,250
Northern Indiana Bank	Logansport,	200,000	100,000
New York Stock Bank	Vincennes,	500,000	119,000
The Bank of Indiana	Michigan City,	50,000	50,000
Elkart Co. Bank	Goshen,	500,000	320,000
Steuben Co. Bank	Angola,	500,000	150,000
Crescent City Bank	Evansville,	250,000	72,098
Indiana Bank	Madison,	500,000	68,400
Central Bank	Indianapolis,	500,000	323,000
Bank of Albany	New Albany,	150,000	86,073
State Stock Bank	James town,	600,000	347,000
Bank of Covington	Covington,	500,000	155,000
Great Western Bank	Terre Haute,	500,000	139,000
Bank of Rochester	Rochester,	200,000	170,000
N. York & Virsginia State Stock Bk	Evansville,	1,000,000	236,000
Bank of Renssalaer	Renssalaer,	500,000	114,000
Wayne Bank	Logansporte,	500,000	120,900
Bank of Attica	Attica,	300,000	144,492
Delaware County Bank	Muncie,	500,000	90,000
Bank of Goshen	Goshen,	200,000	110,000
Lagrange Bank	Lima,	500,000	51,623
Hoosier Bank	Logansport,	200,000	49,985
Upper Wabash Bank	Wabash,	300,000	195,000
Perry County Bank	Cannelton,	500,000	73,000
Wayne Bank	Richmond,	500,000	100,000
Farmers' Bank	Westfield,	200,000	87,152
Traders' Bank	Terre Haute,	100,000	49,998
Kentucky Stock Bank	Columbus,	50,000	35,496
Farmers' & Mechanics' Bank	Indianapolis,	500,000	50,000

BANKING.

FREE BANKS.

the Cincinnati Gazette.)

deposited, Notes issued, and Description of State Stocks, Free Banks.

Notes Cancelled.	Total Circulation.	Description of Stock.
$317,14	$517,681	Indiana 5 & 2½ per cents. Ohio 6 per cents.
11,181	189,119	Indinna 5 & 2½ per cents.
4,560	87,210	Indiana 5 per cents. Missouri 6 per cents.
None.	50,000	Indiana 5 per cents.
7,357	119,983	Indiana 5 & 2½ per cents; Virginia 6 per cents.
3,243	77,357	Virginia 6s, Michigan 6s, Indiana 5s, Missouri 6 per cts.
None.	208,000	Louisiana 6s, Ind. 5 & 2½ p. cts, Va. 6 p. cts, Tenn. 6 p c.
36,327	177,759	Indiana 5 p. cts, Michigan 5 p. cts, Pennsylvania 5 p. cts.
31,238	71,320	Indiana 5 per cts, Virginia 6 per. cts, Louisiana 6 per cents.
2,194	100,154	Michigan 6 per cents, Indiana 5 per cents.
4,682	50,500	Indiana 5 per cents, Virginia 6 per cents.
1,846	49,798	Indiana 5 per cents.
11,999	109,314	Indiana 5 &2½ per cents.
30	60,000	Indiana 5 per cents.
None.	100,000	Indiana 5 p. cts, Pennsylvania 5 p. cts, Virginia 6 per cts.
75,000	62,566	Indiana 5 & 2½ per cents, Georgia 6 per cents.
65	100,000	Indiana 5 per cents and Virginia 6 per cents.
....	70,000	Indiana 5 per cents, Missouri 6 per cents.
....	81,250	Virginia 6 per cents, Kentucky 6s, Indiana 5 & 2½ per cts.
....	100,000	Indiana 5 per cents and Missouri 6 per cents.
....	190,000	Virginia 6 per cents.
....	50,000	Indiana 5 per cents and Missouri 6 per cents.
....	320,000	North Carolina 6 per cents and Louisiana 6 per cents.
....	150,000	Indiana 5 & 2½ per cts, Missouri and Louisiana 6 per cts.
....	72,098	Indinana 5 per cents and Kentucky 6 per cents.
....	68,400	Indiana 2½ & 5 per cents, Missouri 6 per cents.
133,400	189,600	Virginia 6 per cents.
22,567	63,512	Indiana 5 & 2½ per cents and Virginia 6 per cents.
10,000	337,000	Virginia and Ohio 6 per cents.
....	155,000	Indiana 5 p. cts, Virginia 6 per cts. Louisiana 6 per cents.
....	139,000	Virginia 6 per cents.
....	170,000	Missouri 6 p. cts, Va 6s, Louisiana 6s, Tennessee 6 per cts.
....	236,000	Virginia, Georgia and Kentucky 6 per cents.
....	114,000	Pennsylvania 5 per cents, Louisiana 6 per cents.
....	120,900	Virginia and Ohio 6 per cents.
13	144,479	Indiana 5 per cents and Virginia 6 per cents.
....	90,000	Indiana 2½ and 5 per cents.
....	110,000	Indiana 2½ & 5 p. c., Penn. 5s, Tenn. 5s, Louisiana 6 p. cts.
....	51,623	Louisiana 6s, Ind. 5 & 2½ p. cts, N. Carolina 6s, Tenn. 6 p c.
....	49,985	Missouri and Louisina 6 per cents.
....	195,000	Virginia 6 per cents.
...	73,000	Pennsylvania 6 per cents and Indiana 5 per cents.
....	100,000	Virginia 6 per cents.
....	87,152	Indiana 5 & 2½ per cents, Missouri and Virginia 6 per cents.
....	49,998	Indiana 5 per cents.
....	35,496	Missouri 6s, Ky. 6 p. c., La. 6s, Georgia 6 p. c., Ind. 5 p.c.
14,000	36,000	Louisiana 6 per cent.

INDIANA

(*Conti*

(Prepared expressly for

Statement showing No., Names, Location, Capital, Stocks

filed by the

Names of Banks.	Where Located.	Capital.	Notes Issued.
State Stock Bank	Marion,	600,000	55,000
Laurel Bank	Laurel,	150,000	57,000
Banks of Salem	Salem,	250,000	100,000
Kalamazoo Bank	Albion,	50,000	50,000
Farmers' Bank	Jasper,	100,000	42,500
Bank of Albion	Albion,	50,000	41,200
Bank of South Bend	South Bend,	550,000	100,000
Wabash River Bank	Jasper,	600,000	300,000
Traders' Bank	Nashville,	100,000	75,400
Merchants' and Mechanics' Bank	New Albany,	500,000	50,000
Bank of Mount Vernon	Mount Vernon,	400,000	97,414
Bank of Fort Wayne	Fort Wayne,	300,000	124,995
Northwestern Bank	Bloomfield,	600,000	300,000
Bank of America	Morocco,	500,000	49,218
Wabash River Bank	Newville,	500,000	105,000
Bank of Rockville	Rockville,	300,000	50,000
Indiana Reserve Bank	Kokomo,	300,000	47,996
Farmer' and Mechanics' Bank	Rensselaer,	250,000	52,000
Huntington County Bank	Huntington,	300,000	50,000
Brookville Bank	Brookville,	100,000	85,000
Totals	....	$32,900,000	$8,104,166

NOTE. The Pennsylvania 5 per cents, are received for a basis at

The State has and will be purchasing this class of Stocks at 62 for liquida and will soon return a larger amount.

Many of the Banks are retiring their circulation, and since this was made out, is going on.

NOTE. Copied from Supplement to

FREE BANKS.

nued.)

the Cincinnati Gazette.)

deposited, Notes issued, and Description of State Stocks,

Free Banks.

Notes Cancelled.	Total Circulation,	Description of Stock.
....	75,000	Louisiana and Virginia 6 per cents.
....	57,000	Indiana 5 per cents.
....	100,000	Louisiana 6 per cents.
....	50,000	Carolina and Virginia 6 per cents.
....	42,500	Pennsylvania 5 per cents.
....	41,200	Do Do
....	100,000	North Carolina and Virginia 6 per cents.
....	300,000	Virginia 6 per cents.
....	75,400	Indiana 2½ per cents.
....	50,000	Kentucky 6s, Tennessee 6s, Indiana 5 per cents.
....	97,414	Georgia 7 per cents, Carolina 6 per cents.
....	124,995	Indiana 5 & 2½ per cents, Virginia 6 per cents.
....	300,000	Virginia 6 per cents.
....	49,218	Pennsylvania 5s, Indiana 5 per cents.
....	105,000	Virginia 6 per cents.
....	50,000	Louisiana 6 per cents.
....	47,996	Virginia 6 per cents-
....	52,000	Louisiana 6 per cents.
....	50,000	Virginia 6 per cents.
....	85,000	Virginia 6 per cents, Indiana 5 per cents.
$686,881	$7,426,067	

JOHN P. DUNN, Auditor of State,
Per W. H. McDONALD.

83 to 85 pers cents. Indiana 2½s, do do at 50 to 55 do.

tion. We have also paid off over $100,000 of the principal of our State debt,

$100,000 circulation has been returned, and Bonds taken up. Every day this

J. P. DUNN.

the Railroad Record—Sept. 7., 1754.

Illinois Banks.

We have delayed to notice the progress of "Free Banking" in Illinois for some time under an expectation that we should obtain the report of the commissioners made some two months ago, but failing to get that report, we publish the following notice of it from the *Alton Telegraph:*

ILLINOIS BANKS—COMMISSIONERS' REPORT.—We have just received the annual report of the Bank Commissioners, in regard to the affairs and business of the Banking Associations of the State, made in compliance with the requirements of the General Banking Law. The report is an interesting and valuable document; and if its statements are correct, it shows that the Banking Institutions of Illinois are generally not only in a prosperous and flourishing condition, but that they are conducted with much financial ability, and compare favorably with those of any State in the Union.

Since the adoption of the General Banking Law, thirty-one Banks or Banking Associations have been established, with an aggregate capital stock of $17,360,000, on which have been deposited public stocks to the value of $2,650,987.72. Two of this number, however—the Bank of Lucas & Simonds, Springfield, and the City Bank, Quincy—have closed their operations, and are now being wound up; several are just commencing business, and their operations are yet rather limited. The following table will show the aggregate resources and liabilities of the twenty-nine banks now in operation:

RESOURCES.

Amount of public stocks at the rate received	$2,475,741 62
Amount paid for stocks over the received value	196,162 13
Real estate	31,158 22
Notes of other banks on hand	358,339 45
Amount of debts owing to banks	1,368,203 68
Specie on hand	565,152 04
Loans and discounts	316,841 76
Deposited with other banks	876,612 58
Expense account	24,874 97
Checks, drafts and cash items	63,892 41
Total resources	$6,305,978 86

LIABILITIES.

Capital stock paid in	$2,513,790 17
Amount of debts owing by banks	294,034 50
Amount due depositors	1,286,102 25
Profit and loss account	71,787 00
Total liabilities	$6,449,239 92

The Commissioners make a number of suggestions, in regard to the practical operation of the law, bank taxation, and other defects which need to be corrected. It seems that under the present revenue law, some of the bank corporations manage to escape their proper taxation, by shielding their active capital, and consequently pay tax only upon their bonds deposited with the Treasurer. Of the thirty-one banks in operation, only *nine*, among which is the *Alton Bank*, make return of their loans, discounts, bills purchased, &c., upon which taxes are assessed in addition to their stock deposits. The remaining twenty-two make no such return, and consequently pay taxes upon their deposits only. The Commissioners, in view of this inequality, recommend that the taxes be transferred from loans, discounts, &c., and be placed upon the circulation.

The Commissioners state that the General Banking Law discriminates unfavorably as regards Illinois stocks, and recommend that these stocks be considered more nearly in their relation to their market value, as a deposit, than the law at present permits.

The circulating notes of our own banks, as yet, sustain but a very limited relation to our entire currency circulation, perhaps not more than three-tenths. This disproportion will, however, gradually diminish, as our domestic issues find their way into the State, from the distant points where they were originally put into circulation. Of the remote or foreign paper which makes up the residue of our paper circulation, a portion rests upon a stock security basis for its redemption, while a large proportion rests upon a foundation always liable to suspicion.

The Commissioners think that the Banks have generally observed, what is usually denominated the Small Bill Law, in their business transactions. The effect of this law, in those localities where it has been observed, has, without doubt, tended to force small foreign notes from circulation, but its observance has not been so general throughout the State as was expected, or at least hoped for. Some of the banks, with a view to meet the demand occasioned by the withdrawal of foreign small bills, have increased their aggregate issue of small notes, and withdrawn those of a larger denomination. Still, there is much embarrassment attending the want of small change, owing to the scarcity of specie.

EDUCATIONAL

ATTENDING SCHOOL IN THE UNITED STATES DURING THE

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITES.		
	Maels.	Females.	Total.
Maine	97,443	88,498	185,941
New Hamphire	45,764	42,384	88,148
Vermont	47,997	44,155	92,152
Massachusetts	112,219	108,571	220,781
Rhode Island	14,782	13,577	28,359
Connecticut	42,457	39,976	82,433
New York	356,602	331,272	687,874
New Jersey	48,065	41,210	89,275
Pennsylvania	263,451	234,660	498,111
Delaware	7,632	6,584	14,216
Maryland	32,214	28,233	60,447
District of Columbia	3,137	2,966	6,103
Virgin a	59,204	50,507	109,711
North Carolina	54,727	45,864	100,591
South Carolina	21,738	18,555	40,293
Georgia	42,365	34,650	77,015
Florida	2,545	2,201	4,746
Alabama	34,125	28,653	62,778
Mississippi	26,002	22,801	48,803
Louisiana	16,903	15,935	32,838
Texas	10,570	8,799	19,369
Arkansas	12,918	10,432	23,350
Tennessee	78,943	67,187	146,130
Kentucky	69,783	61,134	130,917
Missouri	51,146	44,099	95,245
Illinois	97,245	84,724	181,969
Indiana	119,496	100,538	220,034
Ohio	270,254	242,024	512,278
Michigan	55,546	50,208	105,754
Wisconsin	29,096	27,258	56,354
Iowa	18,677	16,779	35,456
California	800	192	992
TERRITORIES.			
Minnesota	105	102	207
New Mexico	361	105	466
Oregon	1,016	859	1,875
Utah	1,113	922	2,035
Total	2,146,432	1,916,614	4,063,046

STATISTICS.*

YEAR AS RETURNED IN THE SCHEDULE OF POPULATION.

FREE COLORED.			Native.	Foreign.	Aggregate.
Males.	Females.	Total.			
144	137	281	183,051	3,171	186,222
41	32	73	86,998	1,223	88,221
58	32	90	88,746	3,496	92,242
726	713	1,439	211,293	10,927	222,220
304	247	551	27,712	1,198	28,910
689	575	1,264	81,221	2,476	83,697
840	2,607	5,447	644,087	49,234	693,321
3,243	1,083	2,326	88,892	2,709	91,601
385	3,114	6,499	488,823	15,787	504,610
92	95	187	14,077	326	14,403
886	730	1,616	60,386	1,677	62,063
232	235	467	6,485	85	6,570
37	27	64	109,564	211	109,775
113	104	217	100,258	550	100,808
54	26	80	40,073	300	40,373
1	.....	1	76,915	101	77,016
29	37	66	4,704	108	4,812
33	35	68	62,738	108	62,846
.....	.....	.....	48,751	52	48,803
629	590	1,219	30,795	3,262	34,057
11	9	20	18,788	601	19,389
6	5	11	23,343	18	23,361
40	30	70	146,033	167	146,200
128	160	288	129,955	1,250	131,205
23	17	40	92,031	3,254	95,285
162	161	323	173,403	8,889	182,292
484	443	927	218,227	2,734	220,961
1,321	1,210	2,531	498,527	16,282	514,809
106	101	207	100,851	5,110	105,961
32	35	67	45,508	10,913	56,421
12	5	17	34,383	1,090	35,473
1	.....	1	976	17	993
.....	2	2	202	7	209
.....	.....	.....	464	2	466
2	.....	2	1,852	25	1,877
.....	.....	.....	1,969	66	2,035
13,864	12,597	26,461	3,942,081	147,426	4,089,507

* From the Commissioner's Report of the 7th Census [1850].

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, SCHOOLS,

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	COL			
	Number.	Teachers.	Pupils.	Endowment.
Maine	3	21	282	$1,500
New Hampshire	1	18	273	4,000
Vermont	5	30	464	4,700
Massachusetts	6	85	1,043	52,223
Rhode Island	1	11	150	3,500
Connecticut	4	56	738	24,060
New York	18	174	2,673	29,567
New Jersey	4	49	470	6,000
Pennsylvania	21	125	3,286	94,300
Delaware	2	16	144	1,200
Maryland	11	91	992	.....
District of Columbia	2	36	218	1,200
Virginia	12	73	1,343	30,550
North Carolina	5	29	513	11,300
South Carolina	8	43	720	9,650
Georgia	13	84	1,535	21,720
Florida	.....	.....	.....	.....
Alabama	5	55	567	5,900
Mississippi	11	45	862	10,600
Louisiana	5	35	469	18,600
Texas	2	7	165	.....
Arkansas	3	14	150	.....
Tennessee	17	79	1,605	9,300
Kentucky	15	100	1,873	45,608
Missouri	9	65	1,009	23,000
Illinois	6	35	442	4,500
Indiana	11	61	1,069	14,000
Ohio	26	180	3,621	25,136
Michigan	3	22	308	.....
Wisconsin	2	8	75	.....
Iowa	2	4	100	200
California	.....	.....	.....	.....
TERRITORIES.				
Minnesota	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....
Utah	1	.....	.....	.....
Total	234	1,651	27,159	452,314

ETC., IN THE UNITED STATES.

LEGES.				PUBLIC SCHOOLS.		
Annual Income.				No.	Teachers	Pupils.
Taxation.	Public funds.	*Oth. sources.*	Total.			
.....	$6,000	$6,500	$14,000	4,042	5,540	192,815
.....	.....	7,000	11,000	2,381	3,013	75,643
.....	.....	16,858	21,558	2,731	4,173	93,457
.....	5,000	50,678	107,901	3,679	4,443	176,475
.....	.....	.....	3,500	416	518	23,130
.....	.....	29,579	53,639	1,656	1,787	71,269
.....	12,855	105,836	148,258	11,580	13,965	675,221
.....	.....	73,700	79,700	1,479	1,590	78,205
$38	7	187,860	282,205	9,061	10,024	413,706
.....	.....	16,000	17,200	194	214	8,970
.....	1,700	100,014	101,714	907	1,005	33,254
.....	.....	22,800	24,000	22	34	2,169
.....	90,000	39,240	159,790	2,937	0 05	67,438
.....	.....	29,400	40,700	2,657	2,730	104,095
.....	41,700	53,440	104,790	724	739	17,838
.....	500	83,210	105,430	1,251	1,265	32,705
.....	.....	.....	.....	69	73	1,878
.....	305	35,050	41,255	1,152	1,195	28,380
.....	.....	31,800	42,400	782	826	18,746
.....	25,000	32,650	76,250	664	822	25,046
.....	.....	1,000	1,000	349	360	7,946
.....	.....	3,100	3,100	353	355	8,493
.....	482	53,725	63,507	2,667	2,804	103,651
15,447	.....	70,406	131,461	2,234	2,306	71,429
.....	.....	56,528	79,528	1,570	1,620	51,754
.....	700	8,100	13,300	4,054	4,252	125,790
.....	300	29,050	43,350	4,822	4,860	161,500
.....	.....	100,656	125,792	11,661	12,886	484,153
.....	.....	14,000	14,000	2,714	3,231	110,455
.....	.....	4,300	4,300	1,423	1,529	58,817
.....	.....	1,800	2,000	742	830	29,916
.....	.....	.....	.....	2	2	49
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....	3	4	80
.....	.....	.....	.....	13	.....	.....
15,485	184,549	1,264,280	1,916,628	80,991	92,000	3,354,173

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, SCHOOLS, ETC.,

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Annual Income.				
	Endowment.	Taxation.	Public funds.	Other sources.	Total.
Maine	$2,695	$269,603	$31,110	$12,028	$315,436
New Hampshire	2,523	141,016	14,990	8,415	166,944
Vermont	6,737	91,984	56,693	20,697	176,111
Massachusetts	16,906	935,141	37,341	17,407	1,006,795
Rhode Island	660	62,296	31,434	6,091	100,481
Connecticut	5,674	39,476	154,701	31,369	231,220
New York	20,426	756,693	564,104	131,434	1,472,657
New Jersey	2,573	75,653	65,562	73,204	216,992
Pennsylvania	21,425	1,156,027	207,960	29,118	1,414,530
Delaware	.....	14,422	27,753	1,686	43,861
Maryland	1,559	86,663	67,273	64,653	220,148
District of Columbia	1,100	7,090	5,550	492	14,232
Virginia	12,235	43,470	60,828	198,092	314,625
North Carolina	1,535	42,936	97,378	16,715	158,564
South Carolina	3,000	1,200	35,973	160,427	200,600
Georgia	500	21,520	16,959	143,252	182,231
Florida	.....	.....	250	22,136	22,386
Alabama	2,916	800	56,367	255,519	315,602
Mississippi	3,820	33,626	32,492	184,221	254,159
Louisiana	3,200	194,984	93,428	58,067	349,679
Texas	.....	.....	.....	44,088	44,088
Arkansas	1,720	250	8,959	32,834	43,763
Tennessee	8,912	4,500	97,738	84,293	195,443
Kentucky	.....	41,276	46,376	124,200	211,852
Missouri	7,178	3,024	74,807	75,761	160,770
Illinois	20,526	100,694	129,544	98,586	349,350
Indiana	10,630	74,258	134,078	95,501	314,467
Ohio	20,159	285,266	329,671	107,978	743,074
Michigan	.....	88,879	54,279	24,648	167,806
Wisconsin	385	86,391	21,993	4,364	113,133
Iowa	.....	16,549	19,078	15,865	51,492
California	3,600	.....	.....	.....	3,600
TERRITORIES.					
Minnesota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	.....	2,527	.....	1,400	3,927
Utah	.....	8,200	.....	3,312	11,512
Total	182,594	4,686,414	2,574,669	2,147,853	9,591,530

IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

ACADEMIES AND OTHER SCHOOLS.

Number.	Teachers.	Pupils.	Annual Income.				
			Endowment.	Taxation.	Public fund.	Other sources.	Total.
131	232	6,648	$8,376	$120	$6,986	$35,705	$51,187
107	183	5,321	6,136	775	157	36,134	43,202
118	257	6,864	3,727	5,865	1,989	37,354	48,935
381	521	12,774	19,470	100	48	290,559	310,177
46	75	1,601	6,500	.....	.....	26,248	32,748
202	329	6,996	3,385	1,729	25	140,828	145,967
883	3,130	49,262	23,185	4,812	46,465	735,870	810,332
219	437	9,569	1,800	146	125	224,317	226,388
524	914	23,751	73,459	375	3,552	390,457	467,843
65	94	2,011	225	.....	1	47,606	47,832
224	489	10,677	14,995	.....	7,165	220,069	242,229
47	126	2,333	.....	.....	.....	84,040	84,040
303	539	8,983	6,740	.....	504	227,128	234,372
272	403	7,822	15,987	.....	.....	171,661	187,648
202	333	7,467	8,700	.....	226	196,563	205,489
219	318	9,059	7,397	.....	200	101,386	108,983
34	49	1,251	1,900	.....	.....	11,189	13,089
166	380	8,290	1,100	.....	4,949	158,116	164,165
171	297	6,628	100	50	5,743	67,824	73,717
143	354	5,328	52,200	.....	2,985	137,892	193,077
97	137	3,389	.....	.....	.....	39,384	39,384
90	126	2,407	.....	.....	.....	27,937	27,937
260	401	9,517	6,183	230	10,058	140,371	156,842
330	600	12,712	5,445	.....	5,534	241,638	252,617
204	368	8,829	.....	.....	870	142,301	143,171
81	156	4,179	1,985	.....	806	37,697	40,488
131	233	6,185	710	.....	80	62,730	63,520
205	474	15,052	5,690	.....	16,260	127,442	149,392
37	71	1,619	7,960	.....	.....	16,987	24,947
58	86	2,723	.....	.....	.....	18,796	18,796
31	44	1,051	2,500	.....	.....	5,480	7,980
6	5	170	3,000	.....	70	11,200	14,270
1	1	12	.....	.....	.....	140	140
1	1	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
29	44	842	.....	.....	.....	20,888	20,888
13	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,050	2,050
6,032	12,207	261,362	288,855	14,202	114,798	4,235,987	4,653,842

ADULTS IN THE UNITED STATES OVER TWENTY

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITES.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.
Maine	3,259	2,888	6,147
New Hampshire	1,662	1,295	2,957
Vermont	3,601	2,588	6,189
Massachusetts	11,578	15,961	27,539
Rhode Island	1,330	2,010	3,340
Connecticut	2,037	2,702	4,739
New York	39,178	52,115	91,293
New Jersey	6,007	8,241	14,248
Pennsylvania	24,380	42,548	66,928
Delaware	2,012	2,524	4,536
Maryland	8,557	12,258	20,815
District of Columbia	601	856	1,457
Virginia	30,244	46,761	77,005
North Carolina	26,239	47,327	73,566
South Carolina	5,897	9,787	15,684
Georgia	16,552	24,648	41,200
Florida	1,736	2,123	3,859
Alabama	13,163	20,594	33,757
Mississippi	5,522	7,883	13,405
Louisiana	9,842	11,379	21,221
Texas	4,988	5,537	10,525
Arkansas	6,810	10,009	16,819
Tennessee	28,469	49,053	77,522
Kentucky	27,754	38,933	66,687
Missouri	14,458	21,823	36,281
Illinois	16,633	23,421	40,054
Indiana	26,132	44,408	70,540
Ohio	22,994	38,036	61,030
Michigan	4,037	3,875	7,912
Wisconsin	2,930	3,431	6,361
Iowa	2,928	5,192	8,120
California	4,237	881	5,118
Minnesota	389	260	649
New Mexico	13,334	11,751	25,085
Oregon	86	71	157
Utah	88	65	153
Total	389,664	573,234	962,898

YEARS OF AGE WHO CANNOT READ OR WRITE.

FREE COLORED.			Native.	Foreign.	Aggregate.
Males.	Females.	Total.			
77	58	135	2,134	4,148	6,282
26	26	52	945	2,064	3,009
32	19	51	616	5,624	6,240
375	431	806	1,861	26,484	28,345
130	137	267	1,248	2,359	3,607
292	275	567	1,293	4,013	5,306
3,387	4,042	7,429	30,670	68,052	98,722
2,167	2,250	4,417	12,787	5,878	18,665
4,115	5,229	9,344	51,283	24,989	76,272
2,724	2,921	5,645	9,777	404	10,181
9,422	11,640	21,062	38,426	3,451	41,877
1,106	2,108	3,214	4,349	322	4,671
5,141	6,374	11,515	87,383	1,137	88,520
3,099	3,758	6,857	80,083	340	80,423
421	459	880	16,460	104	16,564
208	259	467	41,261	406	41,667
116	154	270	3,834	295	4,129
108	127	235	33,853	139	33,992
75	48	123	13,447	81	13,528
1,038	2,351	3,389	18,339	6,271	24,610
34	24	58	8,095	2,488	10,583
61	55	116	16,908	27	16,935
506	591	1,097	78,114	505	78,619
1,431	1,588	3,019	67,359	2,347	69,706
271	226	497	34,917	1,861	36,778
605	624	1,229	35,336	5,947	41,283
1,024	1,146	2,170	69,445	3,265	72,710
2,366	2,624	4,990	56,958	9,062	66,020
201	168	369	5,272	3,009	8,281
55	37	92	1,551	4,902	6,453
15	18	33	7,076	1,077	8,153
88	29	117	2,318	2,917	5,235
.....	.....	.....	259	390	649
2	2	4	24,429	660	25,089
3	2	5	99	63	162
1	.....	1	121	33	154
40,722	49,800	90,522	858,306	195,114	1,053,420

AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

Culture of the Banana in Florida.

It is remarkable how little value is placed on the climate and producing capacities of Florida by the American people. They are anxious to acquire Cuba at almost any sacrifice, while they neglect to develop and improve the resources of Florida which are in many respects similar and not less valuable than those of Cuba.

Hitherto many causes have conspired to retard the settlement and cultivation of this land of flowers and fruits; some of these causes, and perhaps the most potent, have been overcome, but not until Florida is made accessable to every part of the United States by means of railways. Will her resources be developed or the nation enjoy the luxuries which she is capable of producing? We copy the following account of the culture of the Banana from the *Ancient City*.

THE BANANA.—In the culture and production of this nutricious fruit, all that is necessary for its propagation, is a moist alluvial soil beyond the reach of severe frosts. Hence, that portion of our State, known as South Florida, is well adapted to its cultivation.

In preparing the soil, great care should be taken to extract all roots, and other matter which may engender the *woodlouse*, as that insect has been known to destroy the plant, when first set out. Let the plow run deep, as the small fibrous roots require constant moisture until the plant is firmly attached to the earth, after this they only require a slight dressing with the hoe, until the fruit is matured.

This fruit is raised by transplanting the shoots or suckers, emanating from the root of the parent stem, and set firmly in the earth about four feet each way; watering them a few times, insures their growing rapidly, unless injured in taking them up, which should be done with a sharp spade or knife, keeping as much of the soil attached to the root as possible. This will secure the sucker against almost any danger, for after it has fairly commenced growing, neither excessive rains or long droughts will materially affect them.

The BANANA in Mexico, Central and South America, is to the inhabitants, what the cereal grasses—corn, wheat, rye and barley—are to Northern States, Western Asia and Europe, and what the numerous varieties of rice are to the natives of India and China. The space favorable to the cultivation of this valuable plant in South Florida, does not, perhaps, exceed 15,000 square miles:—including all the Keys, bordering on that portion of our Peninsula, together, with a small portion of Texas, near the Rio Grande.

At Key West, Miama, Old Tampa, &c., we have seen bunches, that in our opinion, would weigh from 75 to 100 lbs., and the fruit occasionally exceed 6 inches in circumference, with a length of 6 or 7, containing from 75 to 90 of the fruit. These bunches, however, would not do for a general average, a deduction of 1-4 would be a fair and probable estimate.

Baron Humboldt, a celebrated traveller, while in Mexico, examined this valuable plant with great interest. He doubts whether there is any other plant on the globe which, in so small a space of ground, can produce so great a mass of nutriment. Nine or ten months after the sucker has been inserted in the earth the banana begins to form its clusters, and the fruit may be gathered in less than a year. When the fruit is taken off, the stalk should be cut down, and there is always found among the numerous shoots which have put forth roots one that will bear three or four months later. Hence a plantation is perpetuated without any other care than that of cutting the stems on which the fruit has ripened, and giving the earth a slight dressing. An acre of land may contain at least 1,100 plants, which, in the space of one year, at a very moderate calculation, will yield more than 55,000 lbs. avoirdupoise of nutritive substance — thrice the quantity of food over any known in the vegetable kingdom.

Let us now examine this plant in a lucrative view, and compare it with any of our soils' productions. An acre, as we before stated, will contain at least 1,100 plants, these will average $1 each, and many will double it, in almost any market; thus making an acre of land produce more real profit than any other production, with little or no labor. Humboldt estimates, that the produce of banana from the same quantity of land, is to that of wheat as 133 :1, and to that of potatoes as 44:1—and he further states that the same extent of ground in Mexico, on which the banama is raised, is capable of maintaining fifty individuals, whereas in Europe under wheat it would not furnish subsistence for two.

In South America numerous preparations are made of this fruit, both before and after its maturity. Before they are matured it is usually baked or fried, or cut into thin slices and dried in the sun, when well pounded make meal or flour, and is a very wholesome article of food. When fully ripe, it is exposed to the sun and preserved like figs, and will without doubt, in time, form a large article of commerce in South Florida.

In the cultivation of this plant for market, it is important that your location should be on navigable streams, as land carriage greatly injures and breaks off the fruit; thus the entire southern coast, including all its rivers and streams, are well adapted to its culture.

While on a visit to Fort Myres, Carloosahatchee River, a few months since, [Dec. last] we were surprised at its culture—beauty of its plant, and the different stages of its fruit. Some were in

blossom, while others with delicate tendrils in appearance, to the full developed and well matured fruit—propagated with little or no labor, save that of inserting them in the earth. The grass plats, or yards attached to the various quarters, being filled with them, in the most thrifty condition. Hence that river is destined to become an important point to attract the lover of the Banana. The various keys in Charloote Harbor [where not too much exposed to wind,] will be found suitable for its culture.

Will our citizens in town, who having a small yard to spare, make an attempt to cultivate it—some few have already commenced with a few plants, and they have been re-paid a hundred-fold for their labor. We hope they will.—*Tampa Herald.*

From the American Agriculturist.

Cultivation of Taste.

It is to be feared that many of even the more enligthened class of citizens, have too little appreciation of the refined and beautyful in nature. Farmers who enjoy peculiar facilities for studying nature, and who ought to read her intelligible forms with peculiar profit, too often look on forests and meadows as valuable only to furnish food for cattle, and fuel for fire. Nor is it strange. They who have to grapple with necessities, come naturally to think those things only useful, which minister to their bodily wants. We were well acquainted with a gentleman who among cattle, or in the field, had an admirable taste, but who was quite indifferent to the beauties of a flower-garden. We used to take him into the garden and pluck some choice flower with "See here, isn't this a beautiful thing;" but he always smiled and said, "What do you think I care about it, I had just a lief look at a dandelion;" and away he would go looking at the cucumber-vines. Now he had not so much an unnatural as an uncultivated taste. For the rich plumage and graceful flight of birds he had an excellent eye, and could listen to their notes with extreme pleasure; but he looked on ornamental shrubs and flowers as equally superfluous and useless. Like many others, he much preferred to see the ground adorned with ornamental beets and cabbages.

But it is a wrong opinion to suppose the excellence of things lies only in their utility. The Creator, it is evident, had something else in view when he made the world; nay, even loves beauty for itself alone. Else, why the delicate and varied hues of innumerable insects that float in the air; or why the beautyful organic structure of mosses and see-weeds; or the systematic arrangement of chemical atoms? These are invisible to us except through the microscope, but they are perfectly apparent to nicer perceptions, and no doubt, administer delight.

But if farmers take delight only in building fences, and plowing fields, and rearing cattle, this, they should remember, can afford but little pleasure to their wives. Their appropriate sphere of action is, or ought to be, about the house. It matters little with them, whether their husband's farms be enclosed with a stone fence or hedge, whether it be stocked with Devons or Short-horns, but it does matter greatly whether the flower-garden be set off with tulips or twitch-grass. Her nice and delicate nature must have smooth lawns and handsome trees, and laughing flowers. Such things delight her more than all the improved cattle in Christendom. But if everytime she looks from her window, her eye falls on piles of brush, and ugly burdocks, and aspiring pig-weeds, what wonder that she takes more delight at her neighbor's house than at home. The truth is, her tastes, if reasonable, should be gratified. A neglected garden is just as repugnant to her nature, as a neglected farm to that of the husband. How often have we seen farmers' wives digging up a little spot of ground with a case-knife, because their husbands had no time to prepare it for them, or thought it useless. An hours' labor would have been, perhaps, all that she needed, and might have been the source of how much pleasure. It might take a little time, and might not add a dollar to the purse; but it will bring what gold can never do—a strong attachment and pure love between husband and wife. It constitutes the soil in which grow the finer sensibilities.

Cold and selfish natures may laugh at these thing, but we pity that man who can range God's heritage from year to year, and think of nothing but granaries and grain. There is in waving fields a higher significance than mere grain. Grasping, miserly eyes may not see it, but it is there; and to those of high thoughts and pure conceptions, it speaks in the most forcible and eloquent language. No, if we have a shadow of skepticism, we would sooner take one stroll across the fields, and over the hills, than read volumes of books.

There is something in the dancing air, and bending grass, and waving woods, that ought to scatter doubt, like chaff, to the four winds. And farmers are just the men to study and appreciate these things. Alone from the beauties of nature, what lesson might they not learn from her spiritual teachings. How many things there are to subdue pride, to restrain melancholy, to cherish reverence, to inspire love! Truth, and beauty, and humility, and joy, beam as visible from every plant and flower as stars in mid-heaven, not dim nor speechless, but clear and eloquent as language and pencil can make them.

If farmers would only study these thing, they would find them imparting an ease and refinement to the mind which lends a charm to every thing, and without which the best natures are rough and untutored.

AGRICULTURE, ITS ESSENTIALS AND NON-ESSENTIALS; INCLUDING AN EXAMINATION OF THE PROPERTIES OF GUANO AND OTHER MANURES—*By H. N. FRYATT, Belleville, N. J.* NEW YORK: T. L. MAGAGNOS & Co., Publishers.

This is a pamphlet of 60 pages; containing much information which will be found interesting and useful to the agriculturist. The selection and proper application of fertilizing agents requires more knowledge than can be derived from the observation and experience of the practical farmer unaided by the lights of science. And owing to a want of information upon this subject, his land becomes less valuable, and his labor less profitable from year to year. The object of the author is to give a better direction to the labor of the husbandman. In his introduction he says:

"The design of this work is to assist in dispelling, if possible, some of the mists which yet appear to envelope the operations of Agriculture. There is no good reason, in this enlightened age, why so simple and important a branch of home occupation should be involved in the slightest obscurity, or that any positive uncertainty should attend the labors of the husbandman. So bountiful is nature in providing for the wants of the races that draw their support from her bosom, that it would seem almost impossible to *prevent* her yielding a full abundance to all who labor for it.

Yet success in agricultural operations, does not always follow; failures occur in favorable seasons, when all the "elements of fertility are apparently present. Why is this? Something is expected from man himself."

And something more than physical labor and the sweat of his face is required: he must study the laws of nature, and the properties of matter to ensure the highest degree of success and the best rewards of his labor.

The work is for sale at the Book Store of Keith & Woods, Market street.

THE WESTERN JOURNAL AND CIVILIAN.

The XII. Volume of this work being now complete, the proprietors will be prepared in a few days to furnish it bound to those who have purchasad the preceding volumes. They have yet on hand and for sale a small number of copies of the entire work, and a larger number of the New Series at the following prices—

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